

AN EXAMINATION OF THE ATTITUDES OF DOWNSIZED
EMPLOYEES TOWARDS THE DOWNSIZING PROCESS:
The case of ESTEDA'A

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Abstract

This study explores employees' attitudes to, and perceptions of, ESTEDA'A, which is a downsizing method used in downsizing the Jordanian Civil Service. This study compares and contrasts the perceptions of employees who have been downsized by the method of ESTEDA'A regarding its organisational justice, and considers the moderating role of ESTEDA'A type (voluntary or compulsory) in reducing negative attitudes towards downsizing.

Research was undertaken in a positivist paradigm. The employees' perceptions and attitudes were assessed in respect of the organisational justice associated with ESTEDA'A, which has two facets: distributive justice and procedural justice. Several factors that potentially affect these perceptions were identified from the literature of downsizing and organisational justice. Consequently, nine hypotheses were formed and statistically tested to achieve the aims of this study. The required data were collected via self-administered postal questionnaire, which was sent to a stratified-systemic-random sample of 843 (30% of the population) ex-civil servants who have been awarded ESTEDA'A (ESTEDA'A leavers), stratified by the year of awarding ESTEDA'A. Response rate was 36% (= 306/843) of the sample and 58% (= 306/522) of the active sample (sample size less unreachable and ineligible cases).

The findings indicate that when compared to compulsory cases, voluntary cases reported more positive attitudes to, and perceptions of, ESTEDA'A. The only exception was the perceived distributive justice. Working after ESTEDA'A, conditional upon wanting to work, significantly influenced the perceptions of distributive justice and procedural justice. Unemployment rates, conditional upon working after ESTEDA'A, significantly influenced the perceived distributive justice, but not procedural justice. Within those who worked after ESTEDA'A, the new job level and type, significantly contributed to the variances in the perceived distributive justice (7.7%) and procedural justice (6.2%). Other results were found. It was concluded that the experienced decision control might hinder the effect of justification on the judgment of distributive justice and procedural justice.

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Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Background to the Research Problem

To arrive to a clear understanding of the research problem, its background is reviewed. The themes of the research problem are twofold: downsizing and organisational justice. These themes are explored in the next two sections followed by the context of this study, ESTEDA'A.

1.1.1 Downsizing

There is a lack of consensus concerning the meaning of the term 'downsizing', which brought about using the term downsizing to imply different meanings and using different words to refer to downsizing. For this study, downsizing is defined as a planned reduction in the workforce (numbers of employees, working hours and/or expenses) by using certain method(s) in order to improve organisational performance.

There are several forces that can lead to downsizing. For example, automating operations (Rayburn and Rayburn, 1999), the worldwide recession such as in the late 1970s and early 1980s (Faltermayer and von Brachel, 1992), acquisitions and mergers, technical innovations, international competition, slow economic growth (Appelbaum *et al.*, 1987), natural productivity, information push-down (Vollmann and Brazas, 1993), reduction in demand, structural changes, core-periphery, and higher output with fewer employees (Kinnie *et al.*, 1998).

Choosing the downsizing approach, which can be reactive or proactive (Lippitt and Lippitt, 1982), involves deciding on the appropriate downsizing method(s) and targets (Appelbaum *et al.*, 1999). This can be done by assessing the compatibility of internal operations and environment with the external environment (Appelbaum *et al.*, 1999), and can be based on perceived features of the workforce oversupply and the context of workforce oversupply (Greenhalgh *et al.*, 1988).

There are a number of downsizing methods (some times referred to as strategies) that can be used when determining the downsizing approach.

Downsizing methods can be classified in different ways, but for this study, they are classified based on their effect on the personnel of downsizing organisations. This classification contains three categories of methods: those that terminate employees' employment, reduce employees' income and/or working hours, and do not affect the current employees. This study is concerned with a downsizing method that terminates employees' employment. Further downsizing may target employees of all types (blue or white-collar) and levels. Consequently, for this study, employees of downsizing organisations are divided into those who were directly affected by downsizing and those who were not directly affected by downsizing. This study is concerned with those who are directly affected by downsizing.

Downsizing outcomes can be divided into at least two levels: the organisational level and individual level. Although some successful incidents were reported regarding the downsizing outcomes at the organisational level, these outcomes are uncertain. There is evidence that downsizing outcomes at the organisational level are affected by downsizing outcomes at the individual level. This study is concerned with downsizing outcomes at the individual level, specifically, the outcomes of those who are directly affected by downsizing that is implemented by using a method that terminates employees' employment. Since those employees leave their jobs as a result of downsizing, they are labelled 'leavers'.

Acknowledging that the effect of unemployment may not be applicable to all leavers, it can be argued that job loss and unemployment can be the main outcome of downsizing for leavers, which in turn, influence leavers' perceptions of downsizing and its fairness. Consequently, factors that can moderate the effects of job loss and unemployment would influence leavers' perceptions of downsizing and its fairness. These factors include the type of job loss (voluntary vs. compulsory), length of unemployment period, re-employment, economic need to work, and employment commitment. A part of the employees' attitudes to, and perceptions of, downsizing pertains to its fairness. The fairness issue is outlined next.

1.1.2 Organisational justice

Organisational justice, which refers to fairness in organisations and workplaces (Greenberg, 1990), can be applied to downsizing, especially regarding the allocation of its outcomes. Considering the fairness of downsizing as a part of leavers' perceptions of downsizing, this study pertains to the research that focuses on the antecedents of organisational justice. Specifically, this study focuses on the factors that influence leavers' assessments of the fairness of downsizing.

There is a debate on the dimensionality of organisational justice; nonetheless, for this study the two-dimensionality is adopted, which entails distributive justice (outcome fairness) and procedural justice (fairness of procedures and interpersonal treatment). The way people make justice assessment entails two types of justice: subjective (psychological response) and objective (state of affairs) (Lind and Tyler, 1988). This study proposes a reconciliation of theories and models that pertains to the subjective judgement of justice. This reconciliation is based on arguing that judgement of distributive justice implies a process of comparing what a person obtained (actual outcome) to what s/he ought to obtain (expected outcome), which is determined by his/her input, referent outcome, or deserved outcome. According to fairness theory (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998), and monistic perspective (Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2001) this reconciliation can be generalised to include procedural justice, where the comparison would be between actual outcomes, procedures, and treatments to expected outcomes, procedures, and treatments.

Researchers have examined several consequences of justice assessments. For example, there is evidence that procedural justice has a stronger effect on organisational outcome (e.g., organisational commitment) than distributive justice, while the latter has a stronger effect on personal outcomes (e.g., pay satisfaction) than the former (Mansour-Cole and Scott, 1998; McFarlin and Sweeney, 1992).

The factors that influence justice judgment can be grouped in three categories: organisational outcome (e.g., job loss), organisational practices (e.g., process and decision control), and perceiver characteristics (e.g.,

personality traits) (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001). In this study, a fourth category is proposed, which pertains to prior job attitudes (e.g., prior job satisfaction). The context of these factors, as well as this study, pertains to a specific downsizing method: ESTEDA'A. This method is explored next.

1.1.3 ESTEDA'A

ESTEDA'A is a downsizing method that is applied in the Jordanian Civil Service. It belongs to the group of methods that terminates employees' employment, and it has two types: compulsory and voluntary ESTEDA'A. Jordanian ex-civil servants who were awarded ESTEDA'A are labelled in this study as ESTEDA'A leavers. Before the issuing of the Jordanian Civil Service Bylaw (JCSB) of 1998, the only difference between voluntary ESTEDA'A leavers and compulsory ESTEDA'A leavers was that the former group requested ESTEDA'A (i.e., they had control over the decision of ESTEDA'A) while the latter group did not. After issuing the JCSB of 1998, voluntary cases received less rewards than what compulsory cases did. For all ESTEDA'A leavers, retirement can be considered as a better alternative to ESTEDA'A, especially because leavers receive more outcomes when retired than when awarded ESTEDA'A. However, all ESTEDA'A leavers are not eligible to be retired but they will be considered retired by the end of their ESTEDA'A periods.

To highlight the deferent characteristics of ESTEDA'A, the regulations before 1998 are considered first. Unlike other downsizing methods where incentives are provided to induce voluntary leavers, all ESTEDA'A leavers receive the same outcomes, regardless of their ESTEDA'A type (voluntary or compulsory). Nonetheless, such outcomes can be regarded as incentives for voluntary cases and as compensations for compulsory cases. After 1998, such outcomes (or incentives) were no longer provided to voluntary cases of ESTEDA'A leavers, which is also not the case for other voluntary downsizing methods that were researched and/or reported in the downsizing literature, mainly from western contexts.

Such differences can be explained when considering that downsizing the public sector entails several social, political, and economic risks (Chiavo-

Campo, 1996). Such risks can be enhanced if downsizing was carried out within an environment of high unemployment rates, like in Jordan.

Although the World Bank emphasized the need to downsize the public sectors of developing countries, including Jordan (McCourt, 2001), this may not represent the forces behind downsizing rather than an initiative to respond to existing forces. Such forces may include high unemployment rates that brought about over-staffed civil services and hindered downsizing, privatization, and the unqualified civil servants who were appointed in an environment of scarcity of employees.

The factors that can influence leavers' perceptions of, and attitudes to, downsizing are contextualised to the case of ESTEDA'A. This facilitates stating the rationales, aims, and focus of this study.

1.2 Research rationales

The rationale of this study is fourfold:

- 1-This study is important because leavers' perceptions of downsizing affect the downsizing outcomes at the organisational level, and consequently, achieving downsizing goals.
- 2-The possible consequences of leavers' assessments of the organisational justice regarding downsizing, which can be attitudinal and/or behavioural and for the future employers also emphasises the significance of this study.
- 3-As downsizing was used to maintain civil service efficiency, the importance of the civil service efficiency is one reason to conduct this study.
- 4-The lack of studies about ESTEDA'A or downsizing in the Jordanian Civil Service, and even about downsizing in Jordan.

1.3 Research aims

This study aims to:

- 1- To explore the employee attitudes to, and perceptions of, ESTEDA'A
- 2- To compare and contrast the perceptions of employees who have been downsized by the method of ESTEDA'A regarding its organisational justice
- 3- To consider the effect of ESTEDA'A type (voluntary and compulsory) in reducing negative attitudes towards downsizing

1.4 Research contribution to knowledge

To achieve these aims, this study proposes an approach to assess the perceived justice associated with the outcomes and procedures of a downsizing method (ESTEDA'A). The approach includes reclassifications for downsizing methods and personnel in downsizing organisations, a reconciliation of justice theories and models, and an identification of the factors that can influence leavers' perception of downsizing. The identified influential factors are derived from downsizing literature and organisational justice literature.

By investigating a downsizing method (ESTEDA'A) that is different from other researched methods, this study intends to identify some characteristics associated with the downsizing method that enhance/ hinder the positive/negative employees' attitudes to, and perceptions of, downsizing. The characteristics of ESTEDA'A imply managerial practices that may influence leavers' perceptions of ESTEDA'A. In addition, this study intends to identify how the factors that influence leavers' perceptions of downsizing interact with the characteristics of downsizing methods. The contributions of this study are described and evaluated after the discussion of the findings. This will be in the last chapter of this study: conclusions. A summary of these contributions is presented below.

This study's theoretical contribution to knowledge is in two contexts: in relation to previous findings and new findings. First this study provides support to the literature regarding:

- The distinction between distributive justice and procedural justice.
- The argument that job loss and unemployment are the main outcomes of ESTEDA'A.
- The mitigating effect of re-employment on perceived distributive justice.
- The argument that the effect of re-employment is enhanced by the level and type of the new job.
- The group-value model in proposing the mutual influence between attitudes towards the group and the perceived procedural justice regarding the group.

- The group-value model in considering 'choice' as important by itself and not conditional upon outcome.
- The theory of dissonance reduction.

Second, some of the findings of this study can be regarded as new findings. These new findings were in respects of the following:

- The positive effect of re-employment on the perceived distributive justice and procedural justice is conditional upon 'wanting to work'.
- Re-employment can have a negative effect on the perceived distributive justice and procedural justice if the leavers do not want to re-work.
- The positive effect of re-employment is stronger for compulsory cases
- Providing informal advance notice can positively influence perceived procedural justice
- The influence of prior job attitudes on the perceived procedural justice is moderated by the organisational practices associated with downsizing.
- The potential effect of personality traits on procedural justice.
- The interaction between 'wanting to work' and 'working after job loss' can have the effect of 'choice' on procedural justice.
- The experienced decision control may hinder the effect of justification on the judgement of distributive justice and procedural justice.

1.5 Scope of the Research

This study focuses on downsizing in the Jordanian Civil Service, and is concerned with a specific downsizing method, ESTEDA'A. This downsizing method belongs to the group of methods that terminates employees' employment. As ESTEDA'A is implemented in other countries in the Middle East, this study pertains to the Jordanian ESTEDA'A. Leavers' perceptions of ESTEDA'A are assessed in respect of leavers' judgements about the distributive justice and procedural justice of ESTEDA'A. Nonetheless, other perceptions aspects are assessed for descriptive purpose (achieving the first aim). This study considers a limited number of factors that can influence leavers' perceptions; these factors were deemed as the key factors.

1.6 The Structure of the Thesis

This study involves the employees' perceptions of, and attitudes to, a downsizing method: ESTEDA'A, where organisational justice represents a key aspect of these perceptions and attitudes investigated. Chapter 2 reviews the literature of downsizing and consists of eight main sections starting with an introduction to the chapter, followed by an approach to defining downsizing. A framework of downsizing is presented in the third section, according to which the other sections are organised. The two following sections discuss the forces behind downsizing, downsizing approaches perspectives. The sixth section is about the downsizing outcome at the organisational level, and the seventh section is on the downsizing outcome at the individual level, where some factors that would affect leavers' perception of downsizing are identified. The last section presents a summary of the chapter.

Chapter 3 reviews the literature about organisational justice and covers four main areas: discussing peoples' concern about justice, exploring the way people assess justice, the consequences of justice judgment, and finally, factors that affect judgement of fairness. These areas are presented in four sections. At the end of the chapter a summary is provided.

Chapter 4 explores the context of this study. This chapter is based primarily on secondary data but also incorporates some information provided by respondents through the process of data collecting, especially because no relevant study was found. The six sections of this chapter cover the meaning of ESTEDA'A, downsizing the civil service in Jordan, the Jordanian perspective of justice and equality, factors affecting leavers' perception about downsizing, and a summary of the chapter.

Chapter 5 provides the research hypotheses which address the research aims, and the reasons supporting each hypothesis are presented. The first research aim has no relevant hypothesis, because it is an exploratory aim. The second research aim has seven corresponding hypotheses, and the third aim has two corresponding hypotheses.

Chapter 6 involves delineating the research design for this study. This chapter consists of ten main sections. The first and tenth sections pertain to the chapter introduction and summary, respectively. The second section outlines the adopted research philosophy. The third and fourth sections involve delineating the research approach and strategy, respectively. The population of this study is defined in the next section, followed by sampling techniques and unit of analysis. The eighth section deals with developing the questionnaire of this study, and the ninth section explains the adopted steps of data analysis.

Chapter 7 deals with data analysis, and starts with an overview of the chapter followed by a discussion of the sample. The use of parametric methods is justified in the third section. The assumption of normality regarding the collected data is considered in the fourth section. The fifth main section deals with Factor Analysis. The concerns of reliability and validity are considered in the sixth section. The first research aim is addressed in the seventh section. The nine hypotheses relevant to the second and third research aims are tested in the eighth and ninth sections. The last section provides a summary of the main findings.

Chapter 8 presents discussion of the results of hypotheses testing in twelve main sections. The first section gives an introduction to the chapter. The second section discusses the results of Factor Analysis. The usefulness of the classification of downsizing methods proposed in Chapter 2 is discussed in the third section. The fourth section considers the usefulness of the proposed framework for the effect of fairness antecedents. The last section is divided into ten subsections, which are dedicated to discussing the effects of the nine sets of variables in addition to ESTEDA'A type.

In the last chapter, Chapter nine, an overview of the main findings is presented regarding each research aim. Academic and practical implications are derived in that chapter. Limitations of this study and implications for future research are the last section of this chapter and this study. Finally, the threads of the argument are brought together to highlight the original contribution of this study.

Chapter Two: Downsizing

2.1 Introduction

This study involves two main themes: downsizing and organisational justice, these two themes are discussed in two successive Chapters: 2 and 3. The reviewed literature in these two chapters, in addition to Chapter Four that deals with the context of this study, provide the background and sources of reasoning for developing the hypotheses of this study in Chapter Five.

In this chapter, through a review of literature that pertains to downsizing, mainly in western contexts, the misunderstanding of the term downsizing is highlighted before exploring some key definitions of the term to arrive to a definition of downsizing for this study. Providing an overview of the downsizing process, a framework is presented in Section 2.3, the subsequent sections being organized according to this framework. In Section 2.4 the forces behind downsizing are explored followed by a discussion of the downsizing approaches, strategies and targets. Several classifications of downsizing strategies/methods are explored before a classification for this study is developed. In Section 2.6, downsizing organisational outcomes are explored. At the individual level of analysis, a classification of the personnel in the downsizing organisations is proposed. According to this classification, personnel in downsizing organisations can be categorized into two groups: those who were directly affected by downsizing and those who were not directly affected by downsizing, where the latter subsumes those who were indirectly affected. A summary of downsizing outcomes for the not directly affected personnel is presented in Section 2.7.2. As job loss is identified as a main downsizing outcome for the leavers, several variables that might moderate the effect of job loss and unemployment on the perception of downsizing and its fairness are identified and explored.

2.2 An approach to defining downsizing

This study's approach to define downsizing goes through three stages. Before defining downsizing, it is beneficial to review, first, the emergence of

the term downsizing followed by, second, a review of some plurality of definitions of the term. Third, a definition of the term downsizing is proposed after exploring the meaning of the word downsizing and discussing some definitions of the term downsizing.

Downsizing, that 'has become a term for the 80s' (Ropp, 1987, p. 62), appeared out of popular usage (Freeman and Cameron, 1993). A shift to consider downsizing started to emerge in the academic literature as a shift in the underlying assumptions pertaining to organisational performance occurred. For example, the larger the better was no longer unassailable (Cameron, 1994; Lippitt and Lippitt, 1982; Ropp, 1987; Tomasko, 1984), nor regarded as an indicator of organisational effectiveness (McKinley *et al.*, 1995). The prevalence of downsizing urged the shift in organisational theory towards focussing on models that consider downsizing as an aspect of the organisational lifecycle (McKinley *et al.*, 1995; Kozlowski *et al.* 1993), specially that it might occur, or be used, in any phase of the organisational lifecycle (Freeman and Cameron, 1993; McKinley *et al.* 1995).

2.2.1 The plurality of definitions of the term downsizing

Although downsizing, as a strategy, has been used by organisations of all sizes (Millmore *et al.*, 2007 forthcoming), it has no unifying definition (Karake-Shalhoob 1998; Thornhill and Saunders, 1998), hence writers might have used the word 'downsizing' (occasionally organisational downsizing) to refer to different meanings, which may result in an ostensible inconsistency or misunderstanding of the downsizing concept. The absence of a unifying definition can be attributed to several reasons. First, downsizing can be looked at from different perspectives: as a phenomenon, state, process, crisis, method or strategy. Second, downsizing can be an aspect of another concept like decline. Third, it may comprise other concepts like restructuring (de-layering) (Freeman and Cameron, 1993). Finally, according to Cameron (1994), it can be researched on at least three deferent levels of analysis: industrial (e.g., Ahmadjian and Robinson, 2001), organisational (e.g., Redman and Keithley, 1998) and individual (e.g., Thornhill *et al.*, 1997).

Thus, to understand and define downsizing from a holistic perspective will involve an approach which incorporates economic, psychological and social science disciplines and theories (Thornhill and Saunders, 1998, p. 273).

The other part of misunderstanding is using different words to refer to downsizing. Including 'building down', 'declining', and 'contracting', Cameron (1994, p. 192) presented 34 words that have been used in organisations by senior managers in place of the word downsizing. Beside these 34 words, other words like 'deorganization', 'decruitment', 'refocussing' (Kozlowski *et al.*, 1993, p. 263), and 'transition' (Larkey, 1993, p. 159), have also been used for the same purpose. Such words have been referred to as 'euphemistic guises' of downsizing (Redman and Keithley, 1998), especially that they carry all the implications of downsizing but appear less aggressive (Ropp, 1987).

However, using less aggressive expressions may not always be the reason for substituting another word for downsizing. For example, layoff or redundancy was among these words, although downsizing 'does not [necessarily] imply layoffs' (Greenhalgh and McKersie, 1980, p. 575). Freeman and Cameron (1993) suggest that because redundancy was the first alternative used to downsize, many authors have treated both words synonymously. Apparently, some authors were concerned more with redundancy as a method than the reasons behind it, which can be downsizing. However, downsizing can be, and is, undertaken without redundancy (Freeman and Cameron, 1993; Lewis *et al.*, 2003; Vollmann and Brazas, 1993). In other words, there are several alternatives to redundancy while downsizing, including natural wastage, voluntary early retirement, transferred redundancy (bumping), work sharing forms (Lewis *et al.*, 2003, pp 378-379), reduction in pay and benefits, pay and benefits freeze, more hours /less pay (Appelbaum *et al.*, 1987, pp. 73-74) and 'pay top-level managers to organizational performance levels' (Rayburn and Rayburn, 1999, p. 54).

Although downsizing is defined in the next two sections, several points are considered to distinguish downsizing from redundancy. Firstly, as discussed earlier, that there are other methods to achieve downsizing (Cameron and Freeman 1993, Lewis *et al.* 2003). Secondly, downsizing is considered to have a strategic nature while redundancy has an operational one (Cameron

and Freeman 1993, Lewis *et al.* 2003). Thirdly, in many countries there are legal limitations on redundancy unlike downsizing (Lewis *et al.*, 2003). Finally, investigating downsizing is at the organisational level of analysis while investigating redundancy is at the individual level of analysis (Freeman and Cameron, 1993).

Further, although rightsizing was among the ‘euphemistic guises’ of downsizing (Redman and Keithley, 1998), Volmann and Brazas (1993) argue that downsizing may, or may not, address rightsizing but it is not rightsizing. Specifically, they claim that rightsizing

aims at having the right number of people doing the right kind of thing, focusing on deployment of human resources rather than wages and salaries expense,

which downsizing aims to reduce (Volmann and Brazas, 1993, p. 20). This claim entails that rightsizing may include the three approaches to improving efficiencies, which resembles the meaning of downsizing proposed by Cameron *et al.* (1991) where rightsizing exemplifies one type of the downsizing strategies, discussed later, identified as ‘Work redesign’. In addition, ‘the right number’ entails efficiency, whereas the ‘right kind of thing’ implies effectiveness, which may be addressed by downsizing according to Cameron and his colleagues.

These ostensible misunderstandings, as discussed earlier, were the result of the absence of a unifying definition. The most widely used definitions of the term downsizing are explored next.

2.2.2 Exploring some definitions of downsizing

To understand and determine the meaning of the term downsizing, the meaning of the word downsize is explored. The Oxford English Dictionary (1989, p. 1000) states that the verb ‘to downsize’ means

to design or build (a car) of smaller overall dimensions, esp. without reducing interior and boot capacity

and downsizing means 'the practice of producing or buying smaller, more economical cars'.

Coined in reference to the scaling down of car sizes by automobile manufacturers, downsizing was first applied to the process of employee cutbacks when business and government began making major reductions to their employee bases in response to recessionary pressures (Appelbaum *et al.*, 1987, pp. 68).

Consistently, within the organisational theories and focussing on what is reduced, Cascio (1993, p. 96) claims that downsizing 'refers to the planned elimination of positions or jobs'. On the other hand, focussing on the goals behind that reduction, downsizing is defined as 'a set of activities, undertaken on the part of the management of an organization, designed to improve organizational efficiency, productivity, and/or competitiveness' (Cameron, 1994, p. 192; Cameron *et al.*, 1993, p. 24; Freeman and Cameron, 1993, p. 12). Cameron and his colleagues add that it represents a strategy that influences the size of workforce, the cost and the work processes of the organisation that implements it, in other words, improving organisational performance (Thornhill and Saunders, 1998).

Freeman and Cameron (1993, p. 14) suggest that downsizing 'may be indicated by the presence of fewer employees at time 2 compared to time 1', or, 'by fewer employees per unit of output at time 2 compared to time 1'. The first way of indicating downsizing disregards the outputs, whereas the second one is the inverse of the efficiency formula (numerator becomes denominator). Using the first way reflects focussing on employees' numbers and how many of them lost their job, whereas using the second way reflects focussing on achieving the efficiency aim. For example, a reduction in employees' numbers with no changes in efficiency can be interpreted as a downsizing that did not reach its goals according to the first way, while it cannot be regarded as downsizing when applying the second way.

Downsizing is a powerful means that brings about organisational change (Millmore *et al.*, 2007). However, in order to consider an organisational

change or redesign as an organisational downsizing, Freeman and Cameron (1993) propose that four characteristics need to be present:

- An intentional effort
- A reduction in personnel, usually
- Aiming at improving the efficiency or effectiveness of the organisation
- Affecting work processes

Freeman and Cameron (1993) used these characteristics to distinguish downsizing from decline, non-adaptation, growth-in-reverse and layoff.

Therefore, downsizing is concerned with improving the outputs to inputs ratio (efficiency) and the ability to achieve goals (effectiveness), bearing in mind the operations done on inputs to produce the outputs. It is noteworthy that some researchers suggest controlling other inputs to bolster or maintain efficiency before considering (and to avoid), cutting the workforce numbers and/or expenses (e.g. Appelbaum *et al.*, 1987; Cameron *et al.*, 1993). Nevertheless, studying, and maybe applying, downsizing is chiefly concerned with controlling the workforce, their numbers and/or expenses, more than any other input. Although efficiency can be improved by controlling the operations done on the inputs alone (Kinnie *et al.*, 1998), looking at efficiency as a ratio, with the outputs as numerator and the inputs as denominator, there are three approaches to boost efficiency. Firstly, by decreasing the input with no changes or with a smaller decrease in the output. This is typically what downsizing implies. Secondly, by decreasing the input and increasing the output. This may imply using a new technology that increases the production output but needs less effort, for example using a computer as a typewriter. Thirdly, by increasing the outputs with no changes in the inputs or with a smaller increase in the inputs. That is what happens when using transfers (redeploy employees) or adding new products.

Apparently, the first and second approaches to improve the efficiency involve downsizing, whereas whether the third approach involves downsizing or not is a debatable issue. On the one hand, which may broaden the downsizing concept to embrace the three approaches, Cameron and his colleagues (Cameron, 1994, p. 193; Cameron *et al.*, 1993, p. 25) claim that 'Downsizing

does not always involve reductions in personnel', and such instances, however, can be named downsizing. For example, when downsizing is indicated 'by fewer employees per unit of output at time 2 compared to time 1' (Freeman and Cameron, 1993, p. 14). They also present several downsizing strategies that maintain this attribute, e.g. adding new products to improve productivity. On the other hand, Rayburn and Rayburn (1999, p. 52) contemplate increasing labour productivity, which is an example of the third approach, as 'an effective alternative to downsizing'.

To disentangle this debate, Cameron and his colleagues' claim has two key features: first, that downsizing can be achieved without reduction in personnel, and second, that improving productivity involves downsizing. These two features are discussed separately.

First, consistent with the claim that downsizing can be achieved without the reduction in personnel, several writers (Allan, 1997; Faltermayer and von Brachel, 1992; Greenhalgh *et al.*, 1988; Kozlowski *et al.*, 1993; Lewis *et al.*, 2003; Millmore *et al.*, 2007; Rayburn and Rayburn, 1999) argue that work-sharing forms are among the available alternatives (methods) when downsizing, whereas in contrast, Vollmann and Brazas (1993) consider work sharing as an alternative to downsizing. Although methods/strategies of downsizing are discussed in Section 2.5.1, whether work-sharing is a means to downsize or not is discussed here in the light of the claim that downsizing can be achieved without a reduction in personnel. Work-sharing is defined as 'any policy involves a redistribution of employment through a reorganisation of work time' (EIRR, 1999, p. 14). Proponents of work-sharing claim that it aims at reducing unemployment (EIRR, 1999). This claim may not oppose the idea of considering work-sharing as a means to downsize especially that using work-sharing brings about a reduction in head count in term of full-time equivalent (FTE). On the contrary, it supports the view that downsizing can be implemented without reduction in personnel and without redundancy (discussed in the previous section). According to the characteristics of downsizing (discussed earlier in this section) proposed by Freeman and Cameron (1993), if the aim is to improve efficiency and/or effectiveness by controlling the human resource (among other inputs), then work-sharing can

be deemed as a method of downsizing, especially because work-sharing is an intentional effort and affects work processes. Consequently, to maintain efficiency, work-sharing should be done among the existing employees, or at least with no increase in the inputs that outnumber the increase in the outputs. It is noteworthy that writers list several downsizing methods that do not involve personnel reduction, for example, reduction in pay and benefits, pay and benefits freeze, more hours /less pay (Appelbaum *et al.*, 1987) and 'pay top-level managers to organizational performance levels' (Rayburn and Rayburn, 1999, p. 54). In addition, according to Cameron and his colleagues' definition of downsizing, it may aim at improving effectiveness but not efficiency. In such cases, downsizing may not bring about a reduction in personnel.

Second, regarding whether improving productivity involves downsizing or not, it can be argued that despite the reason behind downsizing or what sparked the need for it, downsizing is a method that is used in tailoring the inputs of workforce to suit the required outputs. Lippitt and Lippitt (1982) implied this argument by referring to downsizing as 'an effort to reduce or eliminate unneeded efforts and expenditures without affecting output proportionally' (p. 6). In addition, describing the need for downsizing by words like over-hire (Vollmann and Brazas, 1993), overstaff (Allan, 1997; Faltermayer and von Brachel, 1992; Kozlowski *et al.*, 1993), surplus employees (Allan, 1997) or oversupply of labour (Greenhalgh *et al.*, 1988) may also indicate that argument. Therefore, downsizing can be considered as a strategy to maintain the efficiency and effectiveness of the workforce. Nonetheless, although downsizing may address effectiveness alone (according to Cameron and his colleagues), a reduction in the workforce or in head count in term of FTE appears to be essential to justify the use of the word 'downsize'. Consequently, improving productivity can be considered as downsizing when the workforce is reduced.

2.2.3 Downsizing definition

In order to embrace all downsizing methods, for example work-sharing forms, it may be helpful to use the word 'workforce' instead of numbers of employees or personnel to include working hours and/or expenses. Consequently,

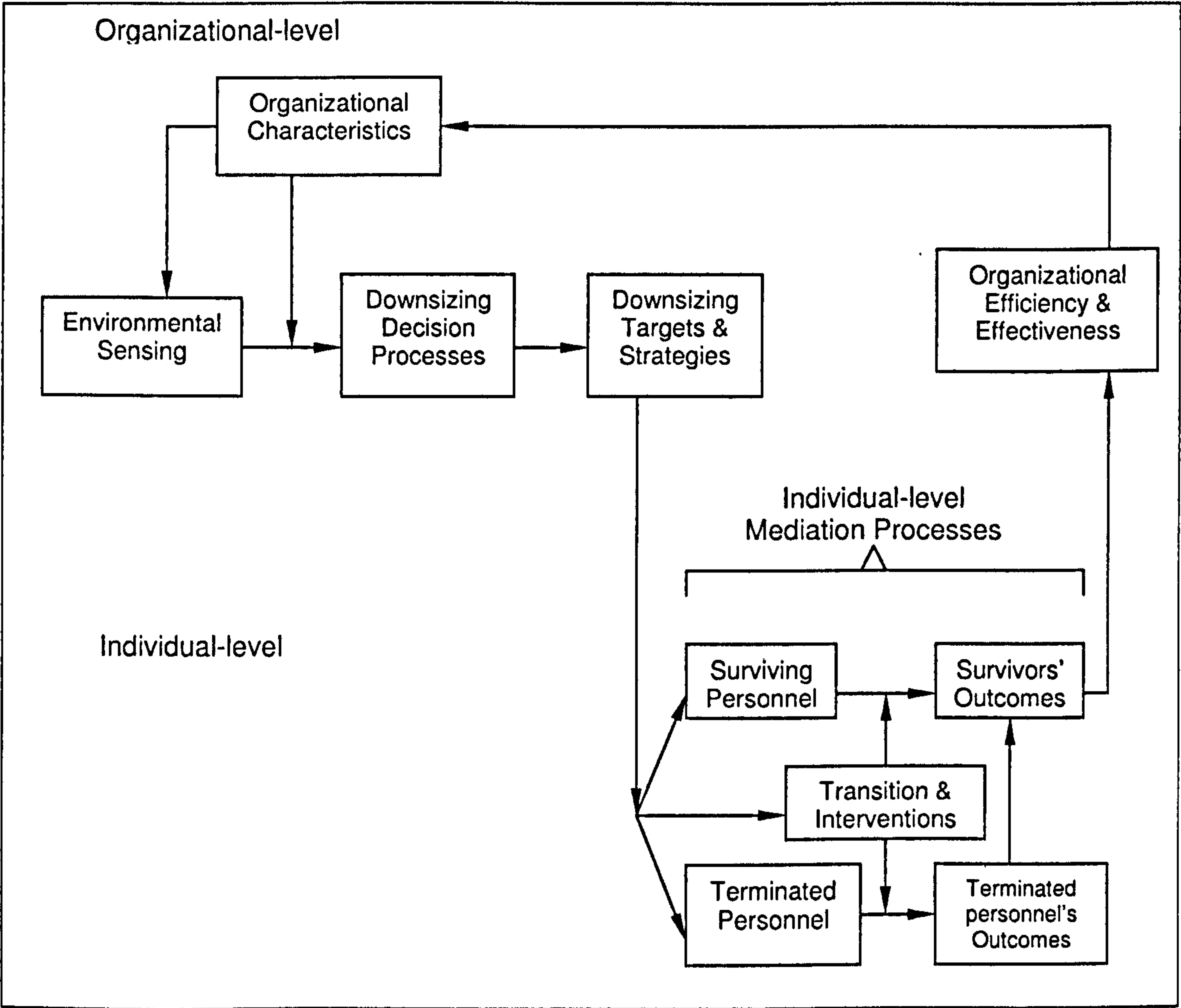
workforce reduction includes reduction in head count in term of FTE. Building on that, 'a reduction in personnel' may not be always an attribute of downsizing. However, reduction in workforce (their numbers and/or expenses) per unit of output may always be if the downsizing does not aim at enhancing effectiveness alone. In that case where the aim is to enhance only the effectiveness, it may not be justifiable to use the word downsize. In this study, improving organisational performance will be used to imply all the potential goals of downsizing.

For the purpose of this study, downsizing is defined as a planned reduction in the workforce (numbers of employees, working hours and/or expenses) by using certain method(s) in order to improve organisational performance. Stating this definition does not aim at presenting a new concept, rather delineating what is meant by downsizing in this study.

2.3 Framework of downsizing process (inputs and outcomes)

As an overview of the successive sections, the framework presented here provides plausible linkages between these sections. Illustrated in Figure 2.1, Kozlowski *et al.* (1993) proposed a 'heuristic' conceptual framework of the inputs and outcomes of the downsizing process. They divided the downsizing process, and consequently its outcomes, into two levels of conceptualisation: organisational level and individual level. At the organisational level, 'Depending on the nature of the perceived environment, the organization may refine or redefine its mission', which would influence, in addition to the organisational characteristics, the downsizing decision (Kozlowski *et al.*, 1993, p. 302). This influence would result in choosing the downsizing targets and strategies, which would determine the effectiveness of downsizing adaptation within the relevant environmental constraints (Kozlowski *et al.*, 1993). Apparently at this stage, the downsizing approach should be determined before choosing downsizing targets and strategies. This part of the process is at the organisational level of the framework, which 'is mediated by complex psychological processes at the lower levels of conceptualization' (Kozlowski *et al.*, 1993, p. 302).

Figure 2.1 A conceptual framework of the downsizing process



Source: Kozlowski *et. al.* (1993, p. 301)

At the individual level, transition management influences the provision and nature of interventions provided to the terminated personnel, ‘such as outplacement, counselling and vocational training’ (Kozlowski *et al.*, 1993, p. 302). These interventions would affect the perceptions, interpretations and reactions (outcomes) of both the surviving and terminated personnel. The terminated personnel’s outcomes affect the survivors’ outcomes, which in turn influence the organisational effectiveness and efficiency that represent outcomes at the organisational level.

This framework presents a wider view of downsizing, and highlights its connection to the internal and external environments, and summarises the forces behind downsizing discussed in the following section. In addition, it

provides a linkage between the two level of analysis: organisational and individual.

2.4 Forces behind downsizing

To explain why so many organisations downsize in spite of the uncertain organisational outcomes (discussed later in Section 2.6), McKinley *et al.* (1995) suggest three social forces. Their suggestion relies on institutional theory. The three forces are constraining, cloning and learning. Constraining forces pressure organisations to obey institutional rules that determine legitimate structures and management activities. They argue that the change in how downsizing is viewed from negatively to positively, disconnecting downsizing from the decline concept and the shift in the value placed on large size would exemplify the effect of these forces. Cloning forces pressure organisations, as a reaction to uncertainty, to imitate the leading organisations in the industry. They argue that imitating others' strategies need not be evidence of their efficacy. However, organisations that imitate downsizing activities of the leading organisations show that they are keeping pace with them. Learning forces pressure organisations to adopt the management practices taught in educational institutions and/or professional associations. Furthermore, McKinley *et al.* (1995) added four conditions that enhance the power of the previous forces. The following table summarises the conditions that promote the social forces.

Table 2.1 The conditions that promote social forces behind downsizing

Promoted by:	Social Forces		
	Constraining	Cloning	Learning
Dependence	Yes		
Ambiguous Performance Standards	Yes	Yes	
Uncertain Core Technologies	Yes	Yes	
Frequent Interaction Between Firms	Yes	Yes	Yes

Source: McKinley *et al.* (1995, p. 39)

To explain the diminishing of social and institutional pressures to avert downsizing, Ahmadjian and Robinson (2001) argue that downsizing spread was due to the safety-in-numbers-effect. In addition, Love (2000) presents an extension to institutional theorizing, especially about what influences the

adoption rate of downsizing. On the other hand, Casio (1993) presented a similar idea to the learning forces.

Rayburn and Rayburn (1999) claim that automating operations to sustain the organisation's international competitiveness was the American executives' justification for downsizing. This claim implies the need to maintain organisational performance at a competitive level, and might guide the search for what sparked the need for downsizing to looking at downsizing as an organisational change that could be initiated by an internal or an external spark, or both.

Appelbaum *et al.* (1987) and Faltermayer and von Brachel (1992) claim that the primary factor that contributed to the need for downsizing was the recession in the late 1970s and early 1980s. Appelbaum *et al.* (1987, pp. 68) present other factors that may contribute to the need for downsizing, including:

- Acquisitions and mergers
- Technical innovations
- International competition
- Slow economic growth

Vollmann and Brazas (1993, p. 19) add two structural forces behind the downsizing decision:

- Natural productivity, which is the 'growth in sales output per hour of labor input due to technological improvements in processes, products designs, and component materials'.
- Information push-down, which resulted from advances in information technology and information management. Information push down 'reduces controlling, reporting, and directing activities, and the job content of lower and middle management'.

Kinnie *et al.* (1998, pp 297-300) identified four forms of downsizing and associate them to the forces behind them. The forces and their corresponding downsizing forms (in brackets) are:

- 'Reduction in demand for products and services' (cost reduction)
- 'Structural changes resulting from changes in ownership or devolution' (de-layering, decentralising or reducing head office staff)

- 'Core-periphery – greater flexibility' (fewer permanent employees)
- 'Constant or higher output with fewer employees'

These forces can be categorized as changes in the internal and external organizational environments. Subsequently, downsizing was applied to adapt to these changes.

2.5 Downsizing approaches

Choosing the downsizing approach involves deciding on the appropriate downsizing method(s) and targets. Appelbaum *et al.* (1999) argue that for an organisation to choose its downsizing approach, it should assess the compatibility of its internal operations and environment with the external environment.

Lippitt and Lippitt (1982) estimated that the reactions to threats that create the need to downsize fall into two categories: reactive and proactive. The first one would be to eradicate unessential assets including employees. But the second one would be to find other alternatives to the first one, which might include: to reassess the priorities, try to increase the outputs of the same inputs, or to revise the rules and operations. The reactive category would fall in the first type of downsizing strategies proposed by Cameron *et al.* (1991) (workforce reduction), and the proactive would fall in the second type (work redesign). Beside that, Cameron *et al.* (1993) articulate that downsizing is approached reactively as a threat and proactively as an opportunity.

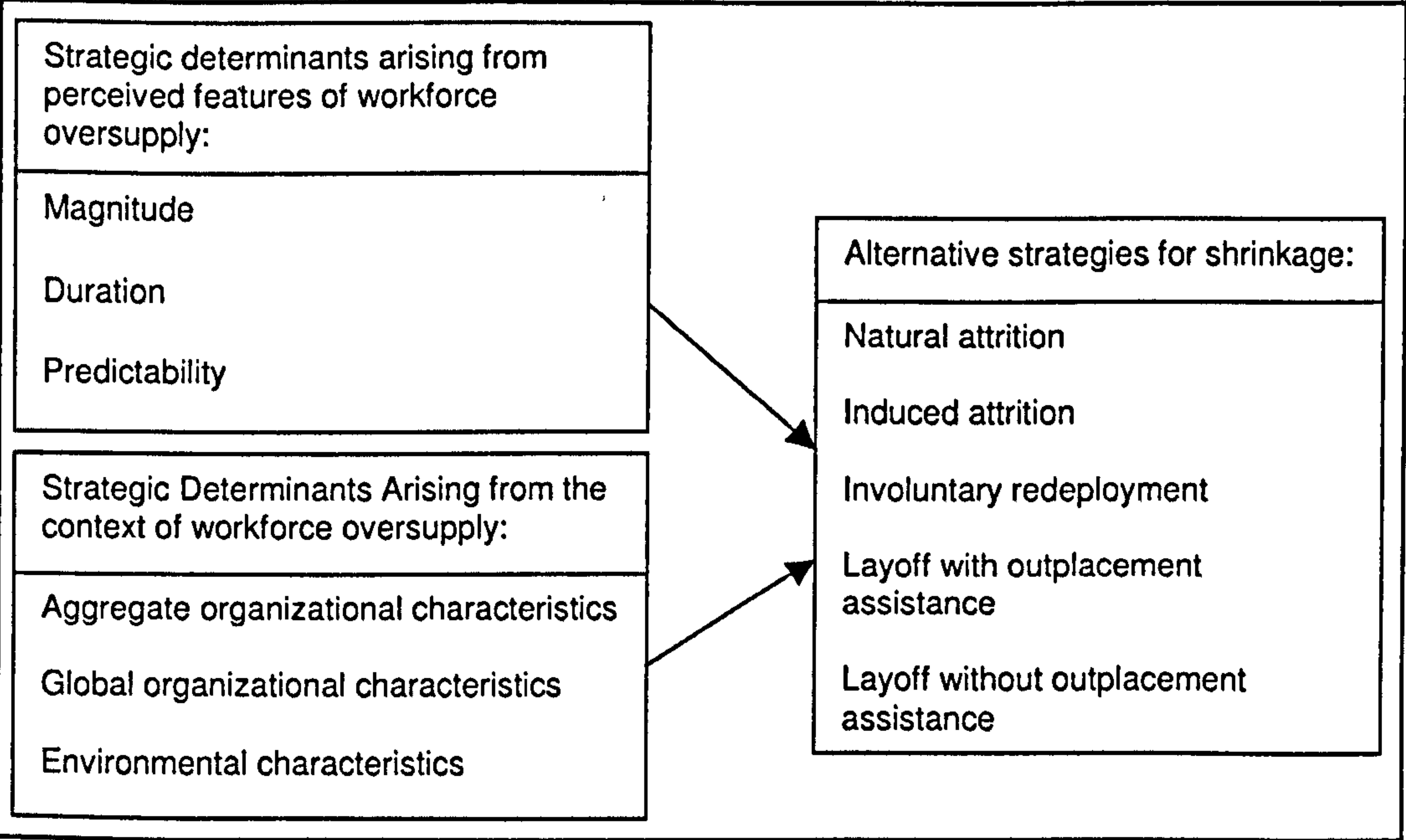
Volmann and Brazas (1993, p. 20) consider downsizing as proactive when it addresses 'work redesign' as proposed by Cameron *et al.* (1991), otherwise as reactive. Lippitt and Lippitt (1984) present similar differentiation between proactive and reactive. Further, Freeman and Cameron (1993, p. 12) argue that

downsizing may be implemented as defensive reaction to decline or as proactive strategy to enhance organizational performance.

On the other hand, despite their focussing on declining organisations, Greenhalgh *et al.* (1988) presented a framework, that could be extended to all

downsizing organisations, for the determinant of work force reduction strategies (see Figure 2.2 and Table 2.2). They agree that the downsizing approach can be determined based on the perceived features of the workforce oversupply and the context of workforce oversupply, where the latter subsumes aggregate organisational characteristics, global organisational characteristics and environment characteristics.

Figure 2.2 Determinants of workforce reduction strategies



Source: Greenhalgh *et al.* (1988, p. 245)

Regarding the perceived features of workforce oversupply, Greenhalgh *et al.* (1988) propose that the more the perceived magnitude of labour oversupply, its duration and unpredictability of both magnitude and duration, the more severe the strategies that are likely to be chosen. While regarding the context of the workforce oversupply that concerns aggregate organizational characteristics, Greenhalgh *et al.* (1988, p. 246) propose that severe strategies would be chosen if employees were unskilled, possessed ‘mainly generic skills’ or could be easily substituted. In addition, attrition would be avoided if the employees’ skills were not needed outside the organisation, whereas redeployment is the most suitable for employees who possess organisation-specific skills, nonetheless, layoff is not apposite for older employees with high levels of seniority.

Concerning global organizational characteristics, Greenhalgh *et al.* (1988) propose that internally diversified organisations are less likely to use layoff. However, if the organisations use temporary employees, they will be less likely to reduce their core employees as a reaction to decline. In addition, more severe strategies are apt to be used when lower levels of slack resources are available. Finally, less severe strategies will be chosen if the organisations have previously experienced decline or adopt values that emphasise treating employees humanely. However, if such values have not already been tested in a previous declining state, they are likely to have less effect on choosing the downsizing strategies.

Table 2.2 Strategic determinants of downsizing strategies from the context of workforce

Aggregate Organisational Characteristics	Global Organisational Characteristics	Environmental Characteristics
Level of skill External demand for skills Mix of generic and organisation-specific skills Age and seniority	Structure of firm (multidivisional vs. unitary) Use of temporary workers Level of slack resources Organisational history and value system	Public vs. private sector Publicly-held vs. privately-held Unionisation Public policy context

Source: Greenhalgh *et al.* (1988, p. 246)

Concerning environmental characteristics, Greenhalgh *et al.* (1988) propose that public sector, publicly-held private sector and unionised organisations will be less likely to use severe strategies compared to private sector, privately-held and not-unionised organisation, respectively. Finally, countries that have legislation for closing plant will experience using less severe strategies. Since Greenhalgh *et al.* (1988) propose this framework for declining organisations, though it can be extended to all downsizing organisations, this framework fits within the reactive approach of downsizing.

Freeman and Cameron (1993) propose another classification of downsizing approaches. Their classification is based on models of change that

postulate a fundamental difference between periods when organizations experience stability, convergence, or momentum and periods when they experience reorientation, divergence, or revolution. (Freeman and Cameron, 1993, p. 16)

Freeman and Cameron (1993) argue that downsizing differs in terms of the focus and size of structural redesign between periods of convergence and periods of reorientation. Out of their investigation of downsizing processes in a large number of organisations, Freeman and Cameron (1993) present several prominent factors that differentiate the two types of periods. A summary of these factors is presented in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Convergence and Reorientation Approaches of Downsizing

Convergence	Reorientation
Incremental downsizing and redesign Moderate downsizing strategies Redesign aimed at reinforcing organizational mission and strategy -do things better Stability in top management team, technology, and systems Emphasis on lower level, less radical downsizing approaches Emphasis in white collar change on change in work, then technology, then structure Downsizing drives redesign	Discontinuous downsizing and redesign More severe downsizing strategies Redesign aimed at redefinition of organizational mission and strategy -do different things Change in top management team, technology and systems Emphasis on higher level, more radical downsizing approaches Emphasis in white collar change on change in structure, then technology, then work Redesign drives downsizing
Success associated with: Less extensive use of communication required Less symbolic action necessary Use of interorganizational relationships is not required Emphasis on stability and control Internal orientation Efficiency criteria	Success associated with: More extensive use of communication required More symbolic action necessary Requires use of interorganizational relationships Emphasis on flexibility and adaptability External orientation Effectiveness criteria

Source: Freeman and Cameron (1993, p. 18)

As Table 2.3 shows, less radical approaches, like eliminating individuals or eliminating tasks, and moderate downsizing strategies would be adopted in convergence periods, whereas a more radical approach, like decreased differentiation or plant closing, and other more severe strategies would be adopted in reorientation periods (Freeman and Cameron, 1993). They identified three types of white-collar changes: work changes (e.g., eliminate task or reduce the number of people doing the same task), technology changes (e.g., automate work) and structure changes (e.g., reorganise the top management team). In convergent periods, less radical changes (work changes) on white-collar would take place, while convergent periods more

radical changes (structure changes) would take place. Further, because when downsizing occurs, it is seldom that the operation, technology and structure remain unaffected and to explicate the relationship between downsizing and redesign, Freeman and Cameron (1993, p. 20) argue that downsizing might lead to redesign and vice versa. In the first case, when downsizing leads to redesign, the focus would be on ‘making the organization *smaller*’, while in the second case, when redesign leads to downsizing, the focus would be on ‘making the organization *different*’. As discussed in sections 2.2.2 and 2.2.3, downsizing may aim to improve organisational efficiency and/or effectiveness. Freeman and Cameron (1993) argue that in convergent periods efficiency would be the success criterion, whereas in reorientation periods, effectiveness is the success criterion. Out of the 30 organisations that were examined, 7 organisations exhibited pure convergence (reinforcement) approach and 9 organisations exhibited a pure reorientation approach (Cameron *et al.*, 1993).

2.5.1 Downsizing methods (strategies)

Generally, downsizing can be applied ‘through either voluntary or involuntary means or combination of both’ (Karake-Shalhoob’s (1998, p. 1). Nonetheless, natural means, like a hiring freeze, are considered as an additional alternative in downsizing (e.g., Greenhalgh *et al.*, 1988; Redman and Keithley, 1998). Some authors used the word ‘method’ to describe the available alternatives in downsizing (e.g., Ropp, 1987; Thornhill and Saunders, 1998), while other authors used the word ‘strategy’ (e.g., Greenhalgh *et al.*, 1988). Therefore, the words ‘method’ and ‘strategy’ are used in this study in line with the original source.

Greenhalgh *et al.* (1988) presented a hierarchy of workforce reduction strategies, which consisted of five levels (see Table 2.4). These strategies are listed in ascending order according to the protection of employee well-being, i.e.,

their subjective reaction to workforce reduction strategy which, in turn, depends on the amount of control that they experience over their continuity of employment (Greenhalgh *et al.*, 1988, p. 242).

Simultaneously, they are in a descending order, according to the short-term cost saving for the organisation, which shows the tradeoffs between the two criteria. To enrich this hierarchy, Greenhalgh *et al.* (1988) suggest using other criteria, for example, ‘consistency with organisational objectives, long-term costs, acceptability to the public, employee health, and ease of implementation’.

Table 2.4 Downsizing Strategies

Redeployment strategies	Sample tactics
Natural attrition	Selective hiring freeze Selective transfer-in freeze Total hiring freeze Total transfer-in freeze
Induced redeployment	Transfer-out incentive Early retirement incentive Severance pay incentive Curtailing of advancement opportunities Compensation freeze or reduction Optional part-time or short-week schedules, work sharing or leave-without-pay
Involuntary redeployment	Involuntary transfer-out within plant Involuntary transfer-out within firm Demotion/downgrading Involuntary part-time or short-week schedules, work sharing, or leave-without-pay
Layoff strategies	
Layoff with outplacement assistance	Lay off with Retraining Job search counselling Severance pay Continuation of benefits (medical, life) Advance notice of layoff
Layoff without outplacement assistance	With recall rights Without recall rights

Source: Greenhalgh *et al.* (1988, p. 243)

Depending on this hierarchy, Thornhill and Saunders (1998) developed their hierarchy by adding two strategies or (as they named them) methods of downsizing: ‘early retirement’ and ‘voluntary redundancy’. They also used two criteria, ‘level of managerial control’ and ‘level of employee influence’. Similarly, their hierarchy demonstrates the tradeoffs between the two criteria. Millmore *et al.* (2007) further developed the latter hierarchy by adding job share (work-sharing) as a downsizing strategy.

By investigating 30 organisations that engaged downsizing, Cameron and his colleagues (Cameron, 1994; Cameron *et al.*, 1991; Cameron *et al.*, 1993) identified three types of downsizing strategies: work force reduction, work redesign, and systemic¹. Cameron (1994, pp. 199-200) found that organisations ‘could be categorised on the basis of the depth and breadth of the downsizing strategies they employed’. The depth represents the number of actions of the same strategy type (i.e., layoffs and attrition are workforce reduction strategies), whereas the breadth represents the number of strategy types (i.e., workforce reduction, work redesign and systemic).

Table 2.5 Types of downsizing strategies

	Workforce reduction	Work redesign	Systemic
Focus	Headcount	Jobs, levels, units	Culture
Eliminate	People	Work	Status quo
Implementation time	Quick	Moderate	Extended
Payoff target	Short-term payoff	Moderate-term payoff	Long-term payoff
Inhibits	Long-term adaptability	Quick payback	Short-term cost savings
Examples	Attrition Layoffs Early retirements Buy-out packages	Combine functions Merge units Redesign jobs Eliminating layers	Involve everyone Simplify everything Bottom-up change Target hidden costs

Source: Cameron (1994, p. 197)

According to Table 2.5, it appears that the hierarchies presented by Greenhalgh *et al.* (1988) and Thornhill and Saunders (1998) are examples of workforce reduction strategies. Further, work redesign strategies presented here resemble the term ‘rightsizing’, distinguished by Volmann and Brazas (1993) who suggest that downsizing may, or may not, address rightsizing but it is not rightsizing.

Cameron *et al.* (1991) found that changing the quality approach from error detection to error prevention or creative quality approaches, which was among the best practices of white-collar downsizing, exemplifies work redesign strategies. In addition, Cascio (1993, p. 96) argues that ‘Downsizing may occur by reducing work (not just employees) as well as eliminating functions, hierarchical levels, or units’, which would imply a concurrence with the

¹ Cameron (1994, p. 200) used both words ‘systemic’ and ‘systematic’

proposed work redesign strategies type. On the other hand, Cascio (1993) excludes normal retirement and resignations from downsizing strategies.

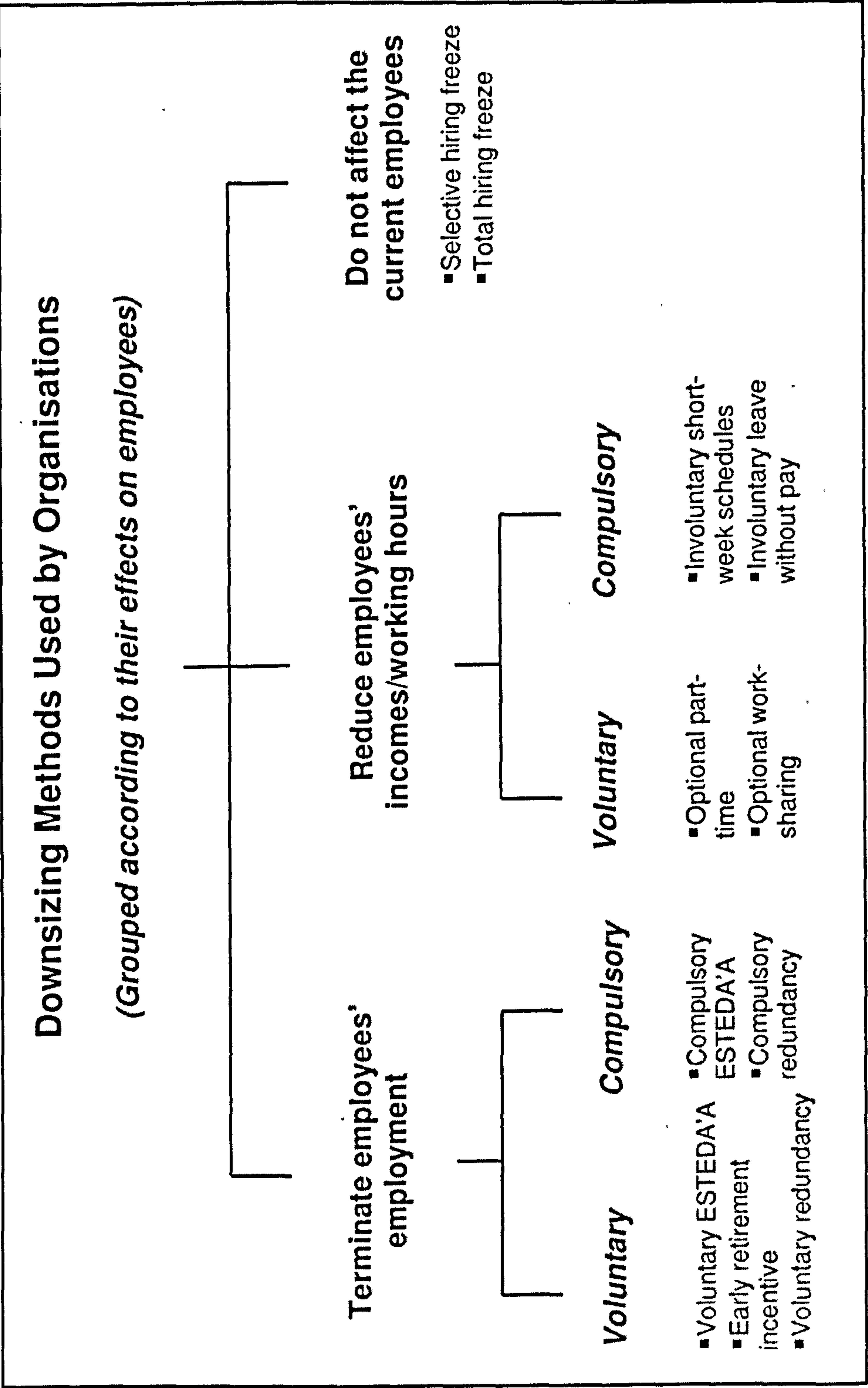
To avoid the need to downsize as a reaction to economic slow growth, Allan (1997, p.58) suggests, from the experience of some large companies, the following practices:

1. Considering hiring permanent employees as a last resort
2. Using overtime
3. Hiring temporary or part-time employees
4. Increasing employees' flexibility by training them for the future needs
5. Contract out some work, which could be brought back in case of workforce oversupply

Nonetheless, these practices can be contemplated as downsizing methods that do not bring about reduction in personnel. Such methods may prevent resorting to other downsizing methods that terminate employees' employment, e.g., redundancy.

Although the downsizing method investigated in this study (ESTEDA'A) is discussed in a separate chapter, it may be beneficial to declare at this stage that this method belongs to the group of downsizing methods that terminate employees' employment, both voluntarily and compulsorily. Further, as discussed later in Section 2.7.3, job loss and unemployment represent key downsizing consequences for the employees who were downsized by ESTEDA'A or other methods in the same category. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, a method-classification based on their effect on employees' employment continuation, is suggested. According to this classification, downsizing methods (strategies) are classified into three categories: those that terminate employees, those that reduce employee's incomes or/and working hours, and those that do not affect the current employees (see Figure 2.3).

Figure 2.3 Classification of downsizing methods



2.5.2 Downsizing targets

A downsizing that has no determined targets is 'similar to tossing a grenade into a crowded room', where little prediction can be made of who would be downsized and how many (Cameron *et al.*, 1991, p. 62). Kozlowski *et al.* (1993) presented three downsizing targets found in practice: across the board, target locations (for example, regions or countries) and target segments (for example, levels or functions).

Kozlowski *et al.* (1993) argue that the chosen targets usually represent the forces (reasons) behind the downsizing. For example, during the period between 1978 and 1986, the number of blue-collar workers in the U.S. decreased by 6% while their productivity increased by 21%. However, in the same period, the number of white-collar workers increased by 21%, which decreased the productivity by 6% (Cameron *et al.*, 1991). The excess white-collar employees were reflected in the overhead rates (Cameron *et al.*, 1991). Consequently, in the early 1980s, downsizing targeted blue-collar. After that, its scope was broadened to reach the white collar (Kozlowski *et al.*, 1993), and, between 1987 and 1991, more than 85% of the Fortune 1000 firms downsized their white-collar workforce (Cameron *et al.*, 1991). In addition, downsizing spread beyond manufacturing sector to encompass the service sector, especially because in service organisations, the largest portion of total cost is for the labour not materials (Cameron *et al.*, 1993). McKinley *et al.* (1995) highlight that white collar employees are more likely to be targeted, due to the difficulty in measuring their performance, i.e., unable to determine the exact amount of required or actual inputs. In addition, advances in information technology and information management reduced the need for large numbers of white-collar employees (Vollmann and Brazas, 1993).

On the other hand, using objective selecting criteria like seniority and merit may reduce employees' negative reactions to downsizing (Fletcher, 1985). Nonetheless, Cameron *et al.* (1991) found that successful downsizing was associated with choosing short-term and across the board targets, as well as long-term and selective targets. Specifically, choosing across the board for

short-term implies a generalized downsizing that helps to avoid charges of favouritism, and highlights the seriousness of the conditions that the organisation is facing, whereas choosing such targets needs to be accompanied by long-term selective targeting to avoid the 'tossing a grenade' consequences (Cameron *et al.*, 1991).

2.6 Downsizing outcomes at the organisational level

Although some positive outcomes for using downsizing including increased efficiency, cost competitiveness, leaner bureaucracy and more flexibility and speed in decision-making were reported in several studies, this was not the common trend (Appelbaum *et al.*, 1987). The basic conclusion of the stream of research concerned with downsizing effects on organisational financial performance is that the claimed benefits of downsizing are uncertain (Sronce and McKinley, 2006). For example, Cameron *et al.* (1991) reported that only 4 organisations, out of the 30 studied, were highly effective in implementing downsizing, whereas 22 were moderately effective and 4 were ineffective. Specifically, surveying approximately 2,500 employees in 30 industrial organisations in the US motor industry that encountered downsizing, each respondent assessed the effectiveness of his/her organisation's downsizing by comparing its current performance with its performance in the previous two years, with the performance of its best domestic and global competitors, with stated goals for the current year, and with perceived customer expectations. Consistently, Cascio (1993) argues that many firms failed to materialize the anticipated economic benefits (e.g., lower expense ratios and higher profits) and organisational benefits (e.g., lower overheads, smoother communications and increases in productivity) of downsizing. These negative outcomes had their societal reflection. For example, as a result of downsizing, the number of unemployed has increased, which in turn increased the strain on unemployment and welfare programmes (Appelbaum *et al.*, 1987).

As discussed in Section 2.3, downsizing outcomes at the organisational level are affected by the outcomes at the individual level. Specifically, the outcomes and treatments that the downsized personnel received influence survivors' post-downsizing attitudes and behaviours, which, in turn, affect the possibility

to achieve the stated downsizing goals (Kozlowski *et al.*, 1993). In addition, personnel in a downsizing organisation tend to move their focus from organisational needs to their personal needs (Vollmann and Brazas, 1993), and to most employees, '...The true bottom line ... is their own career development' (Isabella, 1989, p.36). These outcomes are discussed in the following sections.

2.7 Downsizing outcomes at the individual level

Although there are several methods that can be utilized to improve organisational efficiency, what makes downsizing different from other methods is that it is affecting the human beings in the organisation, both those who leave and those who stay. For example, Rayburn and Rayburn (1999, p. 49) argue 'whether it is ethical to fire a person who has been a productive employee' for a number of years and 'whether ethics should be an issue in this decision'. In addition, personnel's perception and interpretation of the downsizing process would influence the effectiveness and efficiency of the downsized organisation (see the previous section).

2.7.1 Classification of personnel in downsizing organisations

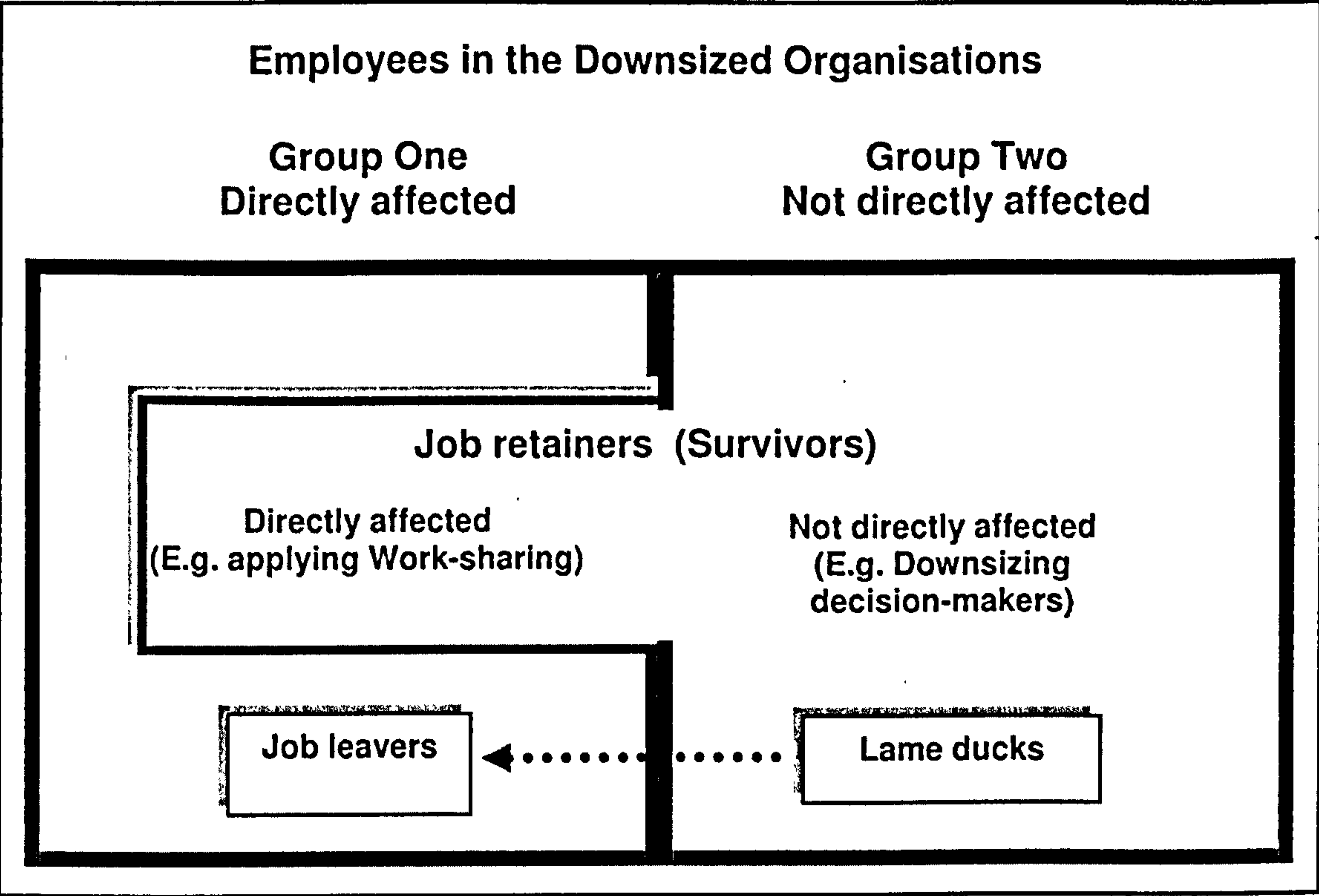
In the downsizing literature, personnel of a downsized organisation are divided into two main groups: those who leave, and those who remain in, the organisation. Apparently, the criterion used for this classification is remaining in the organisation. Both groups of these employees have several labels. For example, those who leave were named displaced employees (Devine *et al.*, 2003), leavers (Larkey, 1993), terminated employees (Kozlowski *et al.*, 1993), and victims (Bennett *et al.*, 1995; Konovsky and Folger, 1991). By reviewing these studies, it appears that these labels were used principally to refer to compulsory leavers. On the other hand, the employees who remain in the organisation were named stayers (Isaksson and Johannson, 2003), surviving personnel (Kozlowski *et al.*, 1993) and survivors (Armstrong-Stassen, 1993; Devine *et al.*, 2003; Isabella, 1989; Larkey, 1993). However, among the employees who remain, those who knew that they would soon leave the organisation were named 'lame ducks' (Brockner *et al.*, 1994). Although this

categorizing is the main trend in the downsizing literature, there are some exceptions. For example, Rosenblatt and Schaeffer (2000) argue that studies addressing downsizing effects distinguished four types of individuals who are potentially affected: laid-off employees (leavers), 'job-insecure employees', 'survivors' and 'downsizers'. However, Rosenblatt and Schaeffer (2000) acknowledge that survivors might be viewed as a subgroup of job-insecure employees, though they were the focus of extensive and independent research. Another example, Shore (1996) argues that there are three types of downsizing victims: those who lost their jobs, those who retained their job but suffered more job loads, and the organisations that suffer negative downsizing outcomes.

Accepting that downsizing can occur without terminating any employee, work-sharing being an example, in such cases, remaining in the organisation may not be a suitable criterion to distinguish the downsized group, since all of the employees would remain in the organisation. Therefore, the criterion of 'being directly affected by downsizing' sounds more suitable. A proposed classification is presented in Figure 2.4, where the personnel are categorized into two main groups: directly affected personnel and not directly affected personnel. The first group would include the work-sharing cases as well as all other downsized employees, whereas the second group would include the rest of the employees including, for example, downsizing decision-makers and downsizing agents (see Figure 2.4). It is noteworthy that according to the proposed classification, the directly affected personnel group exist when applying downsizing methods that affect the current employees subsuming voluntary and compulsory cases (i.e., the first two groups of downsizing methods as shown in Figure 2.3).

However, using additional criteria for sub-classification within each group is helpful. For example, among the first group, Kozlowski *et al.* (1993) argue that the employees who were downsized by work-sharing would encounter a less painful experience compared to those who left the organisation and were not re-employed, whereas they may encounter the same painful experience compared to those who left the organisation and were re-employed on a lower salary.

Figure 2.4 Classification of the employees in the downsized organisations



Furthermore, it can be argued that although the personnel in the second group are not directly affected, some of them are indirectly affected, i.e., the second group is labelled the not directly affected, which includes those who are indirectly affected. For example, some of the remaining employees may encounter unfavourable changes in their work after downsizing due to the reduction in the workforce, for example, more loads (job enlargement). On the other hand, acknowledging the indirect effects of downsizing on personnel, Shore (1996) regards such employees as ‘victims’, whereas Rosenblatt and Schaeffer (2000) consider all remaining personnel as potentially affected by downsizing.

It is noteworthy that the preceding classifications, if theoretically valid, may not be applicable to all cases in practice. For example, surveying alumni of a business school, Sronce and McKinley (2006) reported that 33% of the respondents had been downsizing agents, 30% had been downsizing leavers, and 14% had been, in different situations, both agents and leavers of downsizing.

This two-group classification (directly affected and not directly affected) is used in discussing the effects of downsizing on personnel. Nevertheless, following the literature trend, in this study, the word 'survivors' refers to the personnel who did not lose their job due to downsizing, and the word 'leavers' refers to the personnel who lost their job due to downsizing, both compulsorily and voluntarily.

2.7.2 Downsizing outcomes for the not directly affected personnel

This category, of the not directly affected personnel, subsumes all the employees who remained in the downsizing organisation, except those who have been downsized by non-terminating methods like benefits freeze. Unlike the leavers, the survivors, both directly affected and not directly affected by downsizing, attracted researchers for several reasons including their more obvious impact on the organisational performance.

When the downsizing news is out, people tend to start focusing a lot more on their personal futures and a lot less on the need of the organization (Volmann and Brazas, 1993, p. 21).

Nonetheless, achieving downsizing goals is mainly dependent on survivors' actions (Brennan and Skarlicki, 2004). For example, reporting an experiment and a field survey, Brockner *et al.* (1987) found that survivors who were identified with the leavers who were perceived to be unfairly compensated, had the most unfavourable reactions. In addition, Adamson and Axmith (1983, p. 40) argue that job loss is hard even 'for the manager who must carry it through'. In some cases, the not directly affected personnel suffered more stress than the displaced employees, as a result, they reported that staying in a downsized organisation is worse than leaving it (Devine *et al.*, 2003).

Pertaining to survivors, Isabella (1989) proposes three key career concerns after a downsizing, connects them to employees' emerging needs, and anticipates five dangers on the organisational level if these needs are not sufficiently dealt with. The first concerns and needs are performance-related, for example, whether an employee would be able to perform competently due to the availability of good supervision and resources and to the new

performance standard. The second group are advancement-related, for example, the new promotion system. The third group are growth- and security-related, for example, the new training programmes. The predicted five dangers are: losing valuable employees, stress-related illness, dysfunctional behaviour, psychological withdrawal, and negative attitudes.

Thornhill and Saunders (1998), summarise survivors' reactions into two categories: psychological and behavioural. The first category includes, anger, anxiety, guilt, increased work stress, job insecurity, job satisfaction, lower morale, organisational commitment, perceived fairness, relief, remorse and uncertainty. The second category includes, absenteeism, intention to leave/turnover, risk taking/use of discretion and work effort/performance.

However, individual differences moderate survivors' perceptions and reactions of, and towards, downsizing (Brennan and Skarlicki, 2004). Further, several factors were found to negatively influence survivors' reactions. For example, perceiving layoff as being unfairly handled (Brockner *et al.*, 1994), being attached to downsizing leavers (Brockner *et al.*, 1987), relatively low level of trust in management (Spreitzer and Mishra, 2002), and relatively low level of perceived control (Brockner *et al.*, 2004).

Although some organisations were trying to keep their valuable employees in a 'context where career opportunities appeared to be curtailed' (Beynon *et al.*, 2002, p. 139), for most of the employees

Moving up systematically in one company or a series of companies in an industry is no longer a standard or routine career advancement pattern (Isabella, 1989, p. 36).

Even for persons who survive job loss, they may consider the possibility of being the next employee to face job loss (Kozlowski *et al.*, 1993). Reporting consistent results across laboratory and field settings, Brockner *et al.* (1993) found that moderated by their self-esteem, survivors' perceived threat of further layoffs influenced their feelings of worry and how they reacted to their feelings.

On the other hand, Brockner *et al.* (1985) argue that survivors may perceive positive inequity compared to the leavers, which might bring about motivational, attitudinal and affective consequences.

2.7.3 Downsizing outcomes for the directly affected personnel

As discussed earlier in sections 2.5.2 and 2.7.1, directly affected personnel are not exclusively leavers. However, including other related areas like plant closing, unemployment and job loss, Kozlowski *et al.* (1993) claim that the majority of research on the individual level focuses on the terminated employees. Nonetheless, Kozlowski *et al.* (1993) researched employees who were downsized by work-sharing, though they deemed them as survivors. In addition, as declared earlier in Section 2.5.1, this study pertains to a downsizing method (ESTEDA'A) that terminates employees' employment; consequently the focus of the literature review is mainly on the leavers.

Studying the leavers retained its importance for several reasons including ethical concerns (Rayburn and Rayburn, 1999) as well as leavers' effects on survivors' reactions (Brockner *et al.*, 1987). For example, paying special attention to the leavers was associated with successful downsizing (Cameron *et al.*, 1991, p. 63). Unlike the research on survivors, Konovsky and Brockner (1991) argue that research on leavers' reactions has been focussing on outcomes not directly related to organisational performance (e.g., leavers' psychological distress). Such focussing is presumably because leavers' economic and psychological distresses take place in post-downsizing period, i.e., when those individuals are no longer associated with the organization, which causes little management concern (Konovsky & Folger, 1991).

The term leaver is associated with job loss that can be voluntary or compulsory, as well as unemployment and re-employment. In addition, in order not to entangle downsizing and job loss, it should be clear that the effect of job loss or unemployment does not represent entirely the effect of downsizing on leavers. For example, Konovsky and Folger (1991) researched the fairness of redundancy practices and its outcomes. However, job loss and its consequences can be the main outcome of downsizing for leavers, and

consequently affects the leavers' perceptions of downsizing and its fairness. The argument of the effect of job loss on leavers is developed through the remaining section of this chapter, whereas the fairness issue is discussed in the following chapter.

(I) The effects of job loss and unemployment on leavers

The focus of this study is on the effect of downsizing outcomes (e.g., job loss and unemployment) on the perception of downsizing, using ESTEDA'A as a means of downsizing, and its fairness. In other words, it can be argued that job loss and employment as outcomes of downsizing affect the perception of downsizing and its fairness. Therefore exploring the effects of job loss and unemployment on leavers serves in understanding how these outcomes affect the perception of downsizing and its fairness.

As discussed in Section 2.5.1, the category of methods that terminate employees' employment subsumes voluntary and compulsory methods. However, within the compulsory job loss cases, some employees play parts in bringing about their job loss, for example, through their prior psychological or physical health (Kessler *et al.*, 1988).

Although the literature on job loss highlights the negative downsizing effects on the leavers (Rosenblatt and Schaeffer, 2000), apparently whether a leaver wants to be re-employed or not plays an essential role to consider that leaver as unemployed (e.g., Labib and Appelbaum, 1994), and consequently affects the way s/he perceives job loss. In other words, the negative impact of unemployment may not be applicable to all leavers, for example those who do not want to be re-employed. Nonetheless, none of the reviewed studies considered the effect of the interaction between wanting to be re-employed and re-employment, especially on the perception of downsizing and its fairness.

Latack *et al.* (1995) claim that job loss and unemployment form a continuum, based on duration. However, to elucidate the differences between unemployment and job loss, the following argument is considered. Jackson and Warr (1984) argue that the effect of unemployment duration on

psychological ill-health has two possible explanations: the shock of losing a job, and remaining without a job. According to the first explanation, 'a sharp change in observed scores would be expected to occur at the point of status transition, with relative stability thereafter' (Jackson and Warr, 1984, p. 605). In addition, due to the accumulative stressors (psychological, social and economic) of remaining without a job, the second explanation would bring about a deterioration of well-being.

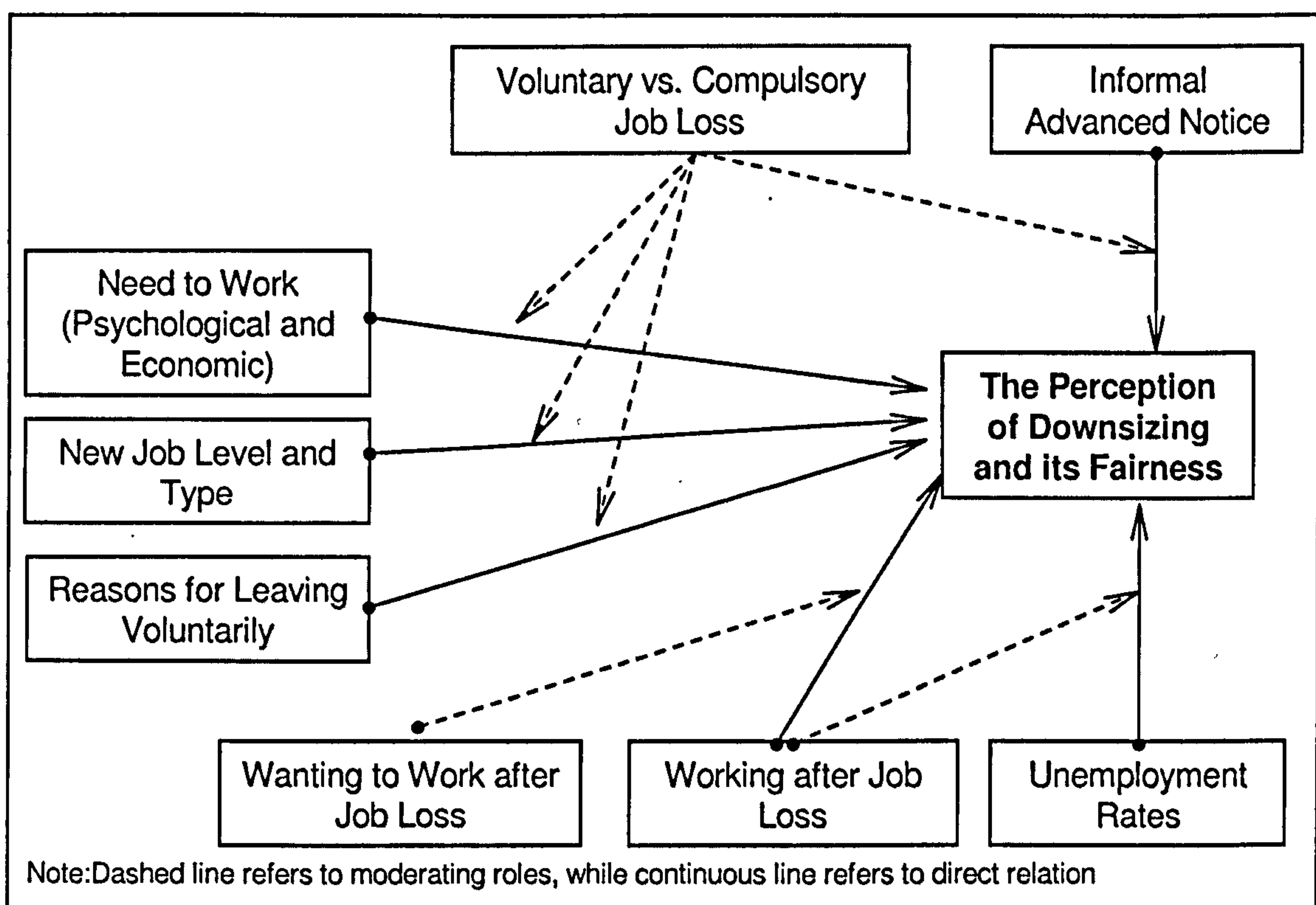
In order to decide on the degree of severity of the job loss and unemployment effects on individuals, research explored number of indicators. Although job loss and unemployment are distinct, since unemployment is an expected result of a job loss, this relationship may explain using similar indicators in assessing their impacts. For example, Kessler *et al.* (1988) used anxiety, depression, mental distress and physical illness to assess the effects of job loss, unemployment and re-employment. On the other hand, to evaluate the effect of unemployment on individuals, Payne *et al.* (1984, pp. 155-158) used 'Health and well-being' and 'Perceptions of the situation' ('Perceived problems', 'Perceived threats of continuing unemployment', 'Perceived opportunities from unemployment' and 'Support-constraints') as indicators of unemployment effects. Nevertheless, these indicators were not used to be compared pre-and-post-unemployment; rather they were used to compare different groups of individuals (social classes). Another example, Burke (1985) used health, family satisfaction, life satisfaction, smoking and alcoholic consumptions as indicators of unemployment effects. However, although they were used to compare males and females, smoking and alcoholic consumption were also compared to the general population of Canada and it was found that the sample drank alcoholic beverages significantly more than the general population and males more than females within the sample ($p < .001$). To sum up, Latack *et al.* (1995) argue that the detrimental effects of job loss are virtually always present notwithstanding which criterion was used to detect these effects.

Leavers vary in their perceptions and reactions to their job loss (e.g., Kessler *et al.*, 1988). For some employees, suffering of job loss may be aggravated if they cannot find comparable jobs (Anfuso, 1996) or cannot find any job at all

(Payne *et al.*, 1984). For example, many cases of individual depression and hardship, both economic and psychological, associated with job loss have been reported, especially for those who are unable to find new jobs (Appelbaum *et al.*, 1987). On the other hand, job loss can be perceived as liberating to pursue new opportunities (Sronce and McKinley, 2006) and further education (Labib and Appelbaum, 1994), or a chance to change career and life direction (Bennett *et al.*, 1995).

The followings factors were found to moderate/mediate the impact of unemployment and job loss on leavers. However, as unemployment and job loss can be considered as the main downsizing outcome for downsizing leavers, these factors are employed in this study to predict leavers' perceptions of downsizing and its fairness. These factors and their potential effects are presented in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.5 The effect of Job loss on perception of Downsizing and its fairness



(A) Type of job loss (Voluntary vs. compulsory)

It can be argued that whether job loss was voluntary or compulsory, is among the key factors that moderate the effect and perception of job loss. Firstly, in voluntary job loss, an employee practices more control over his/her employment continuation that can influence the perception of, and reaction to, downsizing (e.g., Brockner *et al.*, 2004; Brockner *et al.*, 1994). However, Brockner and colleagues' studies were conducted on survivors, which indicates that the positive effect of perceived control may not be in the same direction when applied to leavers. Secondly, in voluntary job loss, an employee is considered as the decision-maker, which makes him/her more likely to experience dissonance reduction (discussed in the next chapter) that, in turn, influences his/her perception of job loss and its effects. Thirdly, it can be argued that an employee who voluntarily loses his/her job had more time to prepare and plan for the consequences of job loss.

Another source for this moderating effect is that the individuals who voluntarily leave their organisations possess certain personality traits, which, in turn, affect the effect and perception of job loss. For example, Judge (1993) found that the more positive the disposition of the individual, the stronger the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover, whereas Mone (1994) found that task self-confidence and role self-esteem positively affect the intent to leave a downsizing organisation. Since there is evidence that self-concept is consequential for adjusting to job loss (Kessler *et al.*, 1988), and that positive affectivity generates positive feelings about oneself and one's life (Watson *et al.*, 1987), such personality traits are expected to engender the differences in perceiving job loss between voluntary and compulsory cases. Finally, job attitudes play a significant role in the decision of voluntary job loss, and consequently, in how job loss is perceived. For example, affective organisational commitment and job satisfaction were negatively correlated with intent to leave a downsizing organisation (Mone, 1994). This example implies that unsatisfied employees are more likely to leave voluntarily, and perhaps they are happier to leave. Prior job attitudes have a potential effect on the perceived fairness of downsizing, which is discussed in the next chapter.

On the other hand, Hepworth (1980) reported that those who answered 'voluntary' as the reason for their job loss had higher subjective well-being and lower psychiatric-illness than those who answered 'dismissal'. This was not the case when comparing those who answered 'voluntary' with those who answered 'redundancy' or those who answered 'end of contract'. However, there was not enough information to further explore these results, especially as other factors, like the amount of redundancy compensation, can provide sufficient explanation. Other possible explanation is the effect of the reason behind job loss, which is discussed in Section 3.5.4 of the next chapter. Further, in voluntary cases, there can be several reasons for an individual to voluntarily leave his/her job, which, in turn, may influence one's perception of downsizing and its fairness.

(a) Reasons behind voluntary job loss

As individuals vary in their reasons to work (see economic need to work and employment commitment in this Section), they are expected to vary in their reasons to leave their job voluntarily. Some of the potential reasons, like prior job attitudes, were discussed earlier in this Section, however, it can be argued that other factors that can relate to the need to work may bring about voluntary job loss. For instance, seeking another job with higher pay, or, to take care of a family member.

Therefore, the reasons behind voluntary job loss can be seen as needs that can be fulfilled by voluntary job loss. These needs can generate motivations or forces to request a voluntary job loss. Such needs are expected, conditional upon their fulfilment, to influence the perception of downsizing outcomes, and consequently, the perception of downsizing and its fairness. Nonetheless, the effect of the reason for requesting a voluntary job loss was not explored by any of the reviewed studies.

(B) Length of unemployment Period

After using a downsizing method that brings about job loss, e.g., ESTEDA'A, leavers who want to be re-employed start a period of unemployment that can be as short as finding a job before leaving or as long as being unemployed

permanently. However, since individuals vary in evaluating their experience of unemployment (Cohn, 1978; Kessler *et al.*, 1988), it is hard to judge that the shortest period would be the least severe (Jackson and Warr, 1984). For example, although the association between the length of the unemployment period and psychological ill-health was found to be strongest in the middle-age group, such association was absent for those who were close to end their working life (Jackson and Warr, 1984). On the other hand, Rowley and Feather (1987) found that more financial strain and psychological distress tend to accompany increasing length of unemployment, with stronger relation in term of financial strain for the older age group (30-49) than the younger group (15-24). In contrast, Hepworth (1980) found that unemployment length correlated negatively with subjective well-being and positively with psychiatric illness.

(C) Demographics

Several demographic variables have been researched to explore these individual differences, although, some discrepant results were reported. In surveying re-employed leavers and continuing survivors, Devine *et al.* (2003, p. 117) studied gender as a controlling variable, and found no significant difference in the dependent variables (perceived occupational stress, perceived job control, job satisfaction, quality of life, overall health, drugs use) that was attributable to gender. In contrast, in a Canadian plant shutdown context, Burke (1985) found that women had significantly less previous hourly wage ($p < .01$), present hourly wage ($p < .01$), and present wage compared to the previous ($p < .001$) than men, and fewer women than men were main breadwinner ($p < .001$).

Another example is social class, in particular it has been proposed that a working-class sample ('unskilled and semi-skilled workers', $N = 196$) would demonstrate 'poorer psychological health than the middle-class' ('white-collar, managerial and professional workers', $N = 203$), Payne *et al.* (1984, p. 152) researched medium-term (6-11 months) unemployed British married men aged between 25 and 39, but their proposition was not confirmed. On the other hand, as a result of unemployment, Payne *et al.* (1984, p. 160) found

that 'the working-class reported a worse financial position than that of the middle-class' in terms of the number of wage-earners in a household and financial worries ($p < .01$), and a better financial position in terms of change in the family income ($p < .05$).

Regarding age and the effect of unemployment, Hepworth (1980) hypothesized that those in the 45-54 age group will report poorer well-being and mental health than those over 55, who are expected to adjust to their unemployment as if it were early retirement and found support for that hypothesis. This result is consistent with the results of Jackson and Warr (1984) where the relation between unemployment length and psychological ill-health was found to be strongest in the middle-age group, and absent for those who were close to end of their working life.

Other demographic variables such as marital status and number of financially dependants are discussed later in Section (f) in the light of the economic need to work.

(D) Unemployment rates

Arguing that the effect of unemployment is likely to be mediated by its prevalence across local areas, Warr *et al.* (1988) propose two plausible hypotheses for this mediation. On the one hand, as areas of high unemployment rates are known to have higher mortality rates and poorer physical health, these attributes might be reflected on poor psychological health. Dooley *et al.*, (1988) argue that this hypothesis is applicable to the whole population. On the other hand, since in areas with high unemployment rates 'communities develop greater resilience in the face of common threat', and it is easier for unemployed people to make external attributions for their unemployment, hence, higher unemployment rates might be associated with better psychological health. Jackson and Warr (1987) found support for this hypothesis. Specifically, after controlling for length of unemployment, employment commitment, and family composition, unemployed men in areas with high unemployment rates were found to have significantly better psychological health than those in other areas.

The unemployment literature highlights how unemployment rates can moderate the impact of unemployment and job loss on unemployed persons. However, in a downsizing context, a leaver may attribute his/her unemployment to downsizing. In this instance, the unemployment rates may represent the likelihood of that a leaver will not be re-employed, which, in turn, would affect leaver's perception of downsizing and its fairness. Specifically, if a leaver did not find a job after downsizing, unemployment rates would negatively affect his/her perception of downsizing and its fairness as unemployment rates represents the chance of not finding a job. On the other hand, this negative effect may not be present if a leaver found a job after downsizing, or it may become a positive effect as in this situation, unemployment rates indicate how lucky the leaver was to find a job. The influence of unemployment rates on leaver's perception of downsizing and its fairness was not explored in any of the reviewed literature.

(E) Re-employment after Job Loss

Several writers (e.g., Kessler *et al.*, 1988; Warr *et al.*, 1988) argue that re-employment may alleviate the unemployment psychological effects, which is supported elsewhere. For example, surveying Danish citizens employed at two shipyards, Iversen and Sabroe (1988) found that, after adjusting for differences in social support, occupation and health, a change in employment status was associated with a significant change in psychological well-being. This is consistent with Kessler *et al.*'s (1988) community survey which found that the adverse effects of unemployment on psychological illness were largely reversed by re-employment. In addition, re-employment significantly moderated the relationships of several predictors with the perceived layoff fairness (Wanberg *et al.*, 1999). However, the effect of re-employment can be conditional upon wanting to work after job loss, especially that some leaver may not want to be re-employed (see above). This interaction of wanting to work and working after job loss was not considered in any of the reviewed studies. Nonetheless, such effect was implied when Jackson and Warr (1984) reported that the length of the unemployment period was not associated with psychological ill-health for those who were close to end their working life, i.e. may not want to be re-employed. However, the state of not wanting to be re-

employed may not be either exclusive to such age category or permanent state. For example, illness may cause a temporary state of not wanting to be – re-employed (see up reasons behind voluntary job loss).

(F) New job level and type

The level of the new job compared to the previous one may impede the re-employment positive effect (Anfuso, 1996; Burke, 1986). Specifically, examining the effect of re-employment, Burke (1986, p. 559) found that employees 'working on a poorer job reported less life satisfaction, more psychosomatic symptoms, and greater alcohol consumption'. By assessing the new job level compared to the previous one in two ways, hourly wages and a 10-item index of job characteristics, Burke (1986) found that differences in hourly wages had a stronger negative effect than did differences in job characteristics. Consistently, Devine *et al.* (2003) found that, compared to the survivors, leavers who were re-employed perceived a higher level of control, and less stress in the new job that brought about less negative job strain. Kozlowski *et al.* (1993) argue that leavers who were re-employed on a lower salary may encounter the same painful experience compared to those who were downsized by work-sharing.

Further, considering re-employment and new job level implies encompassing the two dimensions of job insecurity: quantitative and qualitative, respectively (Hellgren *et al.*, 1999). Consequently, whether the new job is permanent or temporary, and whether it is fulltime or part-time job would moderate the influence of re-employment.

(G) Economic need to work

The effect of economic need to work on the severity of the unemployment experience was implied in several research findings. For example, assessing the economic need to work by the extent of being the main breadwinner (MBW), Brockner *et al.* (1992b, p. 416) reported a significant positive correlation ($r = .17, p = .01$) between being the main breadwinner and survivors' level of worry, relative to the pre-layoff period. As the number of financially dependent (NOD) and being MBW were found to be associated with job

retention, Spreitzer and Mishra (2002) used them as control variables; however, they had no significant correlation with turnover intentions. This was similar to research findings that pertain to financial strains. Kessler *et al.* (1988) used the constraints on buying food, clothing and medical care experienced by respondents, to assess the financial strain engendered by unemployment. Testing several types of strain ('financial strain, marital strain, strain associated with reduced social integration, and increases in the number of stressful life events'), they found that only financial strain was a significant mediator for the effect of unemployment on psychological health (Kessler *et al.*, 1988, p. 80). Consistently, Rowley and Feather (1987) reported that financial strain acted as a moderating influence on psychological distress, where more financial strain tends to accompany increasing length of unemployment.

(H) Employment commitment

Considered by some writers (e.g., Shamir, 1985; Shamir, 1986; Warr *et al.*, 1979) as a component of the 'protestant work ethic', the employment commitment of a person represents the importance to have a paid job for that person, notwithstanding that person was employed or unemployed (Banks and Henry, 1993; Nordenmark, 1999). Job involvement, which is equated with employment commitment (e.g., Shamir, 1985; Shamir, 1986),

is the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work, or the importance of work in his total self-image. (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965, p. 24)

By testing the relations between employment commitment and different functions of employment (money, meaningful activity, work-mate and reputation and respect), Nordenmark (1999, p. 42) found that employment commitment reflects 'the psychological meaning of employment, not the economic meaning', which, he argues, explains why 'the unemployed experience higher levels of depression' (p. 135). Consistent with this claim, Cohn (1978, p. 81) argues that the effect of the change in the employment status on generating negative self-attitudes is conditional upon, among other factors, 'the importance of employment status in the individual's self-concept'.

Through researching unemployed persons, employment commitment was found to be correlated with perceiving the unemployment state and its endurance. Payne and Hartley (1987) reported that, during unemployment, employment commitment was significantly ($p < .01$) correlated with the perception of: threat of continuing unemployment, problems linked with being unemployed, financial worries and health change ($r = .21, .42, .31, -.14$ respectively).

In addition, the psychological well-being of unemployed persons was correlated with employment commitment, which also has a moderating role in the relationship between unemployment and psychological well-being (Jackson and Warr, 1984; Jackson *et al.*, 1983; Nordenmark, 1999; Payne and Hartley, 1987; Rowley and Feather, 1987; Shamir, 1986; Warr *et al.*, 1979).

Despite consistency being apparent in through different research concerning the above results, it was absent in some results regarding marital status, age and gender. Studying British male steelworks ex-employees, Warr and Lovait (1977) found that marital status was unrelated to employment commitment; however, having a working wife was associated². On the other hand, although Nordenmark (1999) found no significant differences in employment commitment for unemployed Swedes attributable to the family situation, he found a significant ($p < .05$) interaction effect between gender and family situation (in descending order of employment commitment scores, for men, cohabiting with children, cohabiting, single, single with children, and for women, single with children, cohabiting with children, cohabiting, single).

Further, Warr and Lovait (1977) reported that age had a curvilinear relation with employment commitment, where percentages of respondents characterised as 'high work orientation' in both age groups under-25 and 55-and-above were lower than the percentage in the intermediate age groups (41%, 51% and 61% respectively). In contrast, Nordenmark (1999) reported

² Warr and Lovait (1977) name employment commitment as 'Work Orientation', which was measured by two yes/no questions, where two yes answers represent high work orientation and two no answers represents low work orientation.

significant ($p < .001$) negative relationships between employment commitment and age for both men and women separately. In addition, studying unemployed British men, Jackson and Warr (1984) reported a significant ($p < .01$) negative correlation between employment commitment and age (ranging from 16 to 64), whereas, comparing two age groups (15-24 and 30-49), Rowley and Feather (1987) reported significant differences regarding employment commitment (15-24 had lower scores).

Furthermore, although some studies reported no gender differences in employment commitment (e.g., Jackson *et al.* (1983) studied employed and unemployed British; Shamir (1985) studied unemployed Israelis), Nordenmark (1999) found significant ($p < .05$) gender differences in employment commitment for unemployed Swedes (men reported higher employment commitment).

These discrepant reports regarding age, gender and marital status could be explained by considering Cohn's (1978) claim that the significance of employment commitment (the importance of employment status) for an individual is determined sociologically not psychologically. To illustrate his claim, Cohn (1978) suggested contemplating the different roles that are expected by a society from men and women, especially in determining the main breadwinner.

More to the point, related to Cohn's (1978) claim, Nordenmark (1999) found that persons who reported 'very easy' regarding finding meaningful activities alternative to employment had lower employment commitment compared to those who reported 'very hard', also those who were housewives or employed part-time before unemployment had lower employment commitment compared to those who were employed full-time. Further, Nordenmar (1999) reported significant ($p < .001$) differences in employment commitment between Scandinavian and non-Scandinavian (the later had higher employment commitment scores) for both men and women. Furthermore, Payne *et al.* (1984) reported no significant difference in employment commitment attributed to social class. Moreover, Jackson and Warr (1984) found a significant ($p < .001$) positive correlation between the number of people who are fully or partly

financially dependent upon an unemployed man and his employment commitment score. Such correlations will be used later in Chapter 7 when considering the criterion-related validity of employment commitment.

Investigating whether employment commitment is a dispositional or situational trait in a sample covering the 15-19 age span, Banks and Henry (1993, p. 177) could not support the hypothesis that employment commitment is stable over time (period of 2 years). By arguing that a person's score on employment commitment is expected, for different reasons, to change over time, for example, by moving to another age group, this finding regarding the stability of employment commitment could be explained. However this point probably needs more investigating, especially since Jackson *et al.* (1983) using the same age groups (16-18 and 18-20) but different scales reported smaller changes over two and a half year period.

(I) Other moderators of the effects of job loss and unemployment

Several studies found significant influence for personality traits on the effect of job loss and unemployment, e.g., self-esteem (Rowley and Feather, 1987), locus of control (Payne and Hartley, 1987), self-confidence (Mone, 1994). Nonetheless, the influence of personality traits on the perceived fairness is discussed in the next chapter.

On the other hand, Hepworth (1980) found that whether or not a man felt his time occupied was the best single predictor of mental health during unemployment, and the only significant predictor when other factors were entered (unemployment length, occupational status, receiving sufficient unemployment benefits and number of times previously being unemployed).

Another factor is receiving advance notification of job loss. Although, such notification can be formal or informal in the Jordanian context, the literature has focused upon formal notification in western contexts. Tang and Crofford (1999) argue that the major advantages of advance notice of plant closing or layoff are that it provides time for preparing, and consequently, reduces unemployment duration with no effect on future earnings, whereas its disadvantages are potential sabotage, disorderly shutdown of the plant, and

premature leaving of the workforce. In a context of plant closing, receiving advance notification was found to have significantly reduced the length of unemployment of those who did not receive unemployment insurance benefits, and specially those who left the plant before termination (Addison and Portugal, 1987). However, the effect of receiving advanced notification is discussed further in the next chapter through a procedural fairness perspective.

2.8 Summary of Chapter 2

In this chapter, it has been highlighted that lack of consensus concerning the meaning of the term 'downsizing' brought about using the term downsizing to imply different meanings and using different words to refer to downsizing. It was argued that downsizing could be achieved without reduction in personnel. This argument was reflected in downsizing definition, classification of downsizing methods, and grouping of personnel in a downsizing organisation. The term downsizing was defined as a planned reduction in the workforce (numbers of employees, working hours and/or expenses) by using certain method(s) in order to improve organisational performance. A framework of the downsizing process, presented in Section 2.3, was adopted in structuring this chapter. This framework that has two levels, organisational and individual, summarizes the forces behind downsizing and shows how the outcomes at individual level affect the outcomes at the organisational level.

Based on institutional theory, McKinley *et al.* (1995) suggest three forces that may engender the need for downsizing, these are constraining, cloning and learning. Other suggestions included automating operations (Rayburn and Rayburn, 1999), the recession in the late 1970s and early 1980s (Faltermayer and von Brachel, 1992), acquisitions and mergers, technical innovations, international competition, slow economic growth (Appelbaum *et al.*, 1987), natural productivity, information push-down (Vollmann and Brazas, 1993), reduction in demand, structural changes, core-periphery, and higher output with fewer employees (Kinnie *et al.*, 1998).

Choosing the downsizing approach involves deciding on the appropriate downsizing method(s) and targets, this can be done by assessing the compatibility of its internal operations and environment with the external environment (Appelbaum *et al.*, 1999). The downsizing approach can be reactive, i.e., eradicate unessential assets, or proactive, i.e., find other alternatives to be reactive (Lippitt and Lippitt, 1982). On the other hand, Greenhalgh *et al.* (1988) argue that the downsizing approach can be determined, based on perceived features of the workforce oversupply and the context of workforce oversupply. Regarding the perceived features of workforce oversupply, Greenhalgh *et al.* (1988) claim that choosing severe strategies is associated with unpredictability as well as high levels of labour oversupply and its duration. The context of workforce oversupply includes, aggregated organisational characteristics, global organisational characteristics and environment characteristics. The aggregate organizational characteristics include, level of skill, external demand for skills, mix of generic and organisation-specific skills and age and seniority. The global organisational characteristics include, structure of firm (multidivisional vs. unitary), use of temporary workers, level of slack resources, organisational history and value system. The environment characteristics include, public vs. private sector, publicly held vs. privately held, unionisation and public policy context. It was argued that this framework fits within the reactive approach of downsizing.

Drawing upon models of change, Freeman and Cameron (1993) propose another classification of downsizing approaches that includes, convergence approach (when organisations experience stability, convergence, or momentum) and reorientation approach (when organisations experience reorientation, divergence, or revolution). Freeman and Cameron (1993) argue that downsizing differs in terms of the focus and size of structural redesign between these approaches. They present several prominent factors that differentiate the two types of periods. A summary of these factors is presented in Table 2.3.

Several existing classifications for the downsizing methods were reviewed before proposing a classification based on the effect on the personnel of downsizing organisations. This classification contains three categories of

methods: those that terminate employees' employment, reduce employees' income and/or working hours, and do not affect the current employees. Further downsizing may target employees of all types (blue or white-collar) and levels. In the literature, the personnel in a downsizing organisation were grouped into two categories: survivors (those who remain after downsizing) and leavers (those who leave as a result of downsizing). For this study, to include downsized employees who left their job, employees of downsizing organisation were divided into those who were directly affected by downsizing and those who were not directly affected by downsizing.

Downsizing outcomes at the organisational levels are uncertain, though some successful incidents were reported. However, pertaining to survivors, Isabella (1989) proposes three key career concerns after a downsizing, connects them to employees' emerging needs, and anticipates five dangers on the organisational level if these needs are not sufficiently dealt with. These concerns and needs are performance related, advancement-related, and growth- and security-related, whereas the predicted five dangers are losing valuable employees, stress- related illness, dysfunctional behaviour, psychological withdrawal, and negative attitudes. Thornhill and Saunders (1998) summarise survivors' reactions into two categories, psychological (e.g., anger) and behavioural (e.g., lower morale). In addition, individual differences moderate survivors' perceptions and reactions of, and towards, downsizing (Brennan and Skarlicki, 2004), whereas several factors were found to influence survivors' reaction, e.g., perceiving layoff as being unfairly handled (Brockner *et al.*, 1994).

Regarding outcomes of downsizing for the directly affected personnel, since this study pertains to a downsizing method (ESTEDA'A) that terminates employees' employment, consequently the focus of the literature review has been predominantly on the leavers. It can be argued that job loss and its consequences can be the main outcome of downsizing for leavers. Further, it can be argued that job loss and unemployment as downsizing outcomes influence the perception of downsizing and its fairness. Thus, exploring the effects of job loss and unemployment on leavers helps in understanding the way these outcomes affect the perception of downsizing and its fairness,

acknowledging that the effect of unemployment may not be applicable to all leavers, for example those who do not want to be re-employed. Consequently, several factors that can moderate the effects of job loss and unemployment were discussed, including voluntary vs. compulsory job loss, re-employment, economic need to work, employment commitment and other factors. The influences of these factors were presented in Figure 2.5, which is further developed in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4. The next chapter addresses the other theme of this study, organisational justice.

Chapter Three: Organisational Justice

3.1 Introduction

To address the issue of justice, it is important to understand that it

is only one facet of a large problem, namely, how people behave with respect to the allocation of rewards and resources in groups, organizations, and large social systems. (Leventhal *et al.*, 1980, p. 167)

These rewards and resources can be categorized into two loose categories: economic (instrumental) that refers to material well-being, comfort, and standard of living, on the one hand, and socio-emotional (symbolic) that refers to one's status and identification with a group, on the other hand (Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2001). The organisational justice literature can be applied to downsizing, especially regarding the allocation of its outcomes. In the previous chapter, Chapter 2, it was argued that job loss and unemployment were the main outcomes of downsizing for the leavers, and consequently, several outcome-related factors that influence the perception of downsizing and its fairness were identified. In this chapter, through reviewing the literature concerning organisational justice, other factors are proposed to influence the perception of downsizing and its fairness and a reconciliation of some justice theories and models is proposed. To fulfil this aim, the meaning of organisational justice is explored as well as its facets. The debate about the number of facets that represent organisational justice is discussed, followed by a review of organisational justice theories and models. This review is divided into four main areas: explaining peoples' concern about justice, exploring the way people assess justice, the consequences of justice judgment, and finally, factors that affect judgement of fairness.

3.2 Meaning of organisational justice

To understand the meaning of organisational justice, the use of the word 'justice' is considered first. By reviewing the literature of organisational justice, it can be noticed that writers used the words 'fairness', 'justice', and

occasionally, 'equity', interchangeably. For instance, Leventhal (1980) used the words fairness and justice to refer to the broad meaning of equity that encompasses all justice standards, whereas he used the term 'contribution rule' to refer to the equity that is based on matching outcomes to contributions as proposed by Adams (1965). In this study, the use of the words 'fairness' and 'justice' follows the same trend. However, in Sections 3.3.1 and 3.5.2, it is argued that the term 'equity rule' can embrace all justice rules.

Although the initial theorizing endeavours pertaining to justice may go back to Plato and Socrates, writers (e.g., Byrne and Cropanzano, 2001; Greenberg, 1993a) agree that the term 'organisational justice' was first coined by Greenberg (1987). Byrne and Cropanzano (2001, p.4) add that

At the most general level, organizational justice is an area of psychological inquiry that focuses on perceptions of fairness in work place. It is the psychology of justice applied to organizational settings.

The term 'organisational justice' (organisational justice) refers to fairness in organisations and workplaces (Greenberg, 1990), and

is concerned with the ways in which employees determine if they have been treated fairly in their jobs and the ways in which these determinations influence other work-related variables. (Moorman, 1991, p. 845)

Organisational research subsumes different roles for organisational justice: dependent, moderator, mediator and independent. Research about organisational justice can be described as focussing on the antecedents and consequences of organisational justice (Colquitt *et al.*, 2001). In other words, studies about organisational justice can be divided into two groups: first, those that are concerned with predicting the judgement or perception of justice, and second, those that are focused on the consequences of justice judgement. Although classifying theories of organisational justice is addressed in Section 3.5, it is beneficial to state at this stage that this study belongs to the first group, i.e., predicting justice judgement, which is reflected in the focus of this literature review.

In addition, justice can be judged from at least three different perspectives: the receiver or victim, the distributor or doer, and the observer. For example, Brockner *et al.* (1992b) reported survivors' assessment of fairness of the outcomes received by the leavers. Similarly, Crosby and Gonzalez-Intal (1984, p. 156) argue that a person would feel injustice about:

- His/her own lack of a desired object or opportunity (X)
- 'His[/her] group's lack of X'
- 'Another person's or group's lack of X'
- 'Another person's or group's possession of X'

Similarly, Folger and Cropanzano (1998) list three types of unfairness cases: personal, two-party (social), and third-party (observer). Personal unfairness cases involve experiencing undeserved misfortune not caused by another party (e.g., an earthquake). Two-party cases of victim and perpetrator, on the other hand, involve experiencing undeserved misfortune caused by another party, whether the other party was held accountable or not for that misfortune. Thirdly, third-party cases involve the society and its interest in correcting wrongs and holding doers of these wrongs accountable.

In this study, the focus is on the receiver's assessments of organisational justice, i.e., his/her own lack of a desired object or opportunity (X). Specifically, this study focuses on the assessments of those who lost their jobs because of downsizing (leavers) of the fairness of downsizing.

3.3 Facets of organisational justice

The feelings of injustice regarding a distribution of outcomes may be engendered by the criteria of allocation, the rules representing the criteria, implementation of the rules, and the decision-making procedures of these (Deutsch, 1975). Brockner and Siegel (1996) claim that theory and research on organisational justice witnessed three waves. The focus of the first wave was on distributive justice or outcome fairness, whereas fairness of procedures (plans and implementations) to allocate the outcome or procedural justice was the focal point of the second wave. According to Brockner and Siegel's (1996) understanding of procedural justice, the focus of second wave also embraced interactional justice (IAJ). The third wave, which is currently in

progress, according to Brockner and Siegel (1996), addresses the combined effects of the fairness of outcomes and procedures. On the other hand, in reporting interviews with the founders of organisational justice, Byrne and Cropanzano (2001) adopted Tyler's ideas in structuring the history of organisational justice into three waves. The first wave saw the emergence of relative deprivation, the second wave saw the rise of distributive justice, and the third wave saw the appearance of procedural justice. Another structuring for the history of organisational justice is proposed by Colquitt *et al.* (2005), through which they identify four waves of research and theorizing about organisational justice. The first wave, which includes relative deprivation, is labelled the 'distributive justice wave'. The second and third waves pertain to procedural justice and interactional justice, whereas the fourth wave was labelled the 'integrative wave'.

The continuous research on organisational justice in the last 40 years has arrived to up to four forms of justice: distributive, procedural, and interactional (that subsumes interpersonal and informational justice) (Nowakowski and Conlon, 2005). Nevertheless, the dimensionality of organisational justice is still debatable (e.g., Bobocel and Holmvall, 2001; Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2001). However, since there is a wide agreement on dividing organisational justice into two facets: distributive justice and procedural justice (Bobocel and Holmvall, 2001; Byrne and Cropanzano, 2001; Colquitt *et al.*, 2001), this pattern is followed in this study. The other facets of organisational justice that have been identified in the organisational justice literature as well as the debate about these facets are discussed in the following sections.

3.3.1 Distributive justice

Although Tyler considers the emergence of 'relative deprivation' (explained in Section 3.5.2) as the first wave of organisational justice, he claims that distributive justice was the real beginning of organisational justice (Byrne and Cropanzano, 2001), especially since the concept of distributive justice was the first justice construct to be studied by social psychologist (Nowakowski and Conlon, 2005). Among the earliest propositions about distributive justice, Homans (1961) argues that a social exchange or relation between two

individuals (Person and Other) implies that both individuals are giving and receiving rewards from the other part. Homans (1961, p. 74) presents the concept of distributive justice as 'justice in the distribution of rewards and costs between persons'. Using economic terms, Homans (1961) claims that distributive justice can be obtained in an exchange when all parts have the same profit-investment ratio. Profit comprises what is received (Person's rewards) less its costs to Person, whereas investments comprises what is received by the other part of the exchange (Other's rewards) less its cost to Other, which may include, for example, education, experience, ability, or tools (Homans, 1961). Adams (1965) regards Homans' (1961) proposition as qualified to be a theory. However, although Adams (1965) elaborated 'equity theory' on Homans' (1961) work (Byrne and Cropanzano, 2001), much of the research about distributive justice was derived from the work of Adams (1965) (Colquitt *et al.*, 2001).

Building on the concept of relative deprivation and Homans' (1961) theory of distributive justice, Adams (1965) presents the theory of inequity in social exchange or what is called 'equity theory'. Similarly, Adams (1965) argues that a social exchange needs at least two parties³ to exchange inputs and outcomes, but named Homans' (1961) investments as inputs, which may include attributes like gender, ethnic background, and age, and named Homans' (1961) profits as outcomes that can be either positive (favourable) or negative (unfavourable) outcomes. These propositions highlight the postulated balance between inputs (investments) and outcome (profits), nonetheless, in a broad view, Deutsch (1975, p. 137) stated that 'the concept of distributive justice is concerned with the distribution of the conditions and goods which affect [the different aspects of] individual well-being'. Deutsch (1975, p. 137) used the word 'well-being' 'to include its psychological, physiological, economic, and social aspects'.

³ It is noteworthy that, as discussed in Section 3.2, Folger and Cropanzano (1998) considered personal unfairness cases that involve experiencing undeserved misfortune not caused by another party (e.g., an earthquake).

It can be concluded that the initial propositions about distributive justice (Adams, 1965; Deutsch, 1975; Homans, 1961) delineated its meaning that can be simply stated as the fairness of outcomes, especially, when compared to inputs. Arguing that distribution of outcome is only the last link in a chain of events, Leventhal (1976, 1980) present a theory of justice judgment. Identifying three major problems with equity theory, Leventhal (1980) proposes this theory as an alternative to equity theory. The first problem regarding equity theory was its focus on only one rule of justice: the contributions rule, which is a distributive rule, and overlooking other possible rules, for example, the need rule (Leventhal, 1980). The second problem was its concentration on outcomes and disregarding the procedures that engendered these outcomes (Leventhal, 1980). The issue of procedural justice is discussed in the next section. Finally, according to Leventhal (1980), equity theory tends to consider fairness as the most important aspect in social relationships and neglects other forces that influence social perception and behaviour. Out of Leventhal's critique, there are two points that need to be discussed: first, interpreting the concept of 'inputs' tends to vary, and second, the existence of other distributional standards beside equity. The first point was also labelled as the 'multiple operationalization of equity' (Nowakowski and Conlon, 2005, p. 5).

Regarding the first point, Homans (1961) acknowledged that parts of social exchange might differ in assessing their profits and investments and, consequently, their proportions, which would result in different judgement of distributive justice. Consistently, Blau (1964) highlights the importance of expectations that can be based on either experience or reference standards. To explain such dissimilarities in fairness assessment, Adams (1965) argued that each attribute might have a different weight in the total input, and suggests two characteristics to be present in inputs and outcomes: recognition and relevance. Specifically, Adams (1965) claimed that for an attribute possessed by a party of a social exchange to be regarded as an input, it must be perceived as relevant to the exchange at least by the possessor who should recognize possessing it. Therefore, the problem of inequity appears if unlike the possessor, the other party deemed an attribute as irrelevant or did

not recognize its existence and acted accordingly. The same characteristics of relevance and recognition should apply to an object to be regarded as an outcome. For an object to be an outcome, it should be deemed as *relevant* to the exchange by at least the receiver who should *recognize* it either as a positive (favourable) or negative (unfavourable) outcome. Inequity would appear if the giver and the receiver had different consideration for the characteristics of relevance and recognition.

Regarding the second point, there are several distributional standards that can be adopted in different situations to arrive to a fair allocation. Generally, these values of justice that are learned through socialisation, differ from one group or society to another group or society, nonetheless, these values are among the main determinants of justice judgements (Lind and Tyler, 1988). What is a fair correlation between input and outcome of an exchange is determined, according to Adams (1965), by normative expectations, which are formed and adopted through socialization and are based on input/outcome correlation of a referent person or group. A feeling of inequity would result if these normative expectations were violated. Adams (1965) identified two terms 'Person' and 'Other' as individuals or groups, where Other is to whom Person compares him/herself without overlooking that Other and Person can be either: (a) the same individual in two different situations, (b) in a direct exchange relationship with each other, or (c) in a direct exchange with a third party. Adams (1965) claimed that equity exists only if the outcome/input ratios for Person and Other are equals, otherwise, there will be positive (over-rewarded) or negative (under-rewarded) inequality if Person's ratio transcends Other's ratio or vice versa, engendering feelings of guilt or anger, respectively. Including Adams' equity criterion, Deutsch (1975) presented 11 values (criteria) upon which distribution can be done, subsuming ability, efforts, accomplishment and equal opportunities to compete, to name just a few. Arguing that what is regarded as just differs from one culture to another, Lerner (1977) presented, based on experimental evidence, five examples of forms of justice, which are included among Deutsch's (1975) 11 values, although Lerner's (1977) considered these 5 to be the most prevalent. The first form is justice of parity that entails equal allocations, whereas the second form is justice of equity that involves

matching outcomes with inputs, which resembles Adams' proposition. The third form is justice of competition that implicates matching outcomes with performance in equal opportunities, and the fourth form is Marxian justice that implies that needs are the base for distribution. Finally, the fifth form is legal justice, which may be developed, evaluated, and modified depending on the other forms of justice. Leventhal (1980, p. 30) refers to these forms of justice, among other forms, as justice rules and defines them as

an individual's belief that a distribution of outcomes, or procedure for distributing outcomes, is fair and appropriate when it satisfies certain criteria.

It is noteworthy that Leventhal (1980) included both distributive justice and procedural justice in defining justice rules.

More to the second point, deciding which justice rule and procedures to follow may depend on the aim of the distribution. Claiming that equity, equality and need are the most dominant principles of distributive justice, Deutsch (1975) proposes three corresponding allocation goals, which would entail which form of justice is more appropriate: maximize productivity, maintain harmony, and maximize welfare, respectively. On the other hand, Leventhal (1976) argues that a fair allocation is determined upon all applicable justice rules, and suggests a model that entails a four-stage justice judgement sequence. The four stages are 'weighting, preliminary estimation, rule combination, and outcome evaluation' (Leventhal, 1980, p. 31). In the first stage, an individual decides upon the applicable rules of justice and their importance and, consequently, assigns their weights (Leventhal, 1976; 1980). In the second stage, an individual simultaneously estimates the deserved outcomes upon each applicable justice rule (Leventhal, 1976; 1980). In the third stage, by combining all estimated deserved outcomes according to their assigned weights, an individual reaches a final judgment of the deserved outcomes (Leventhal, 1976; 1980). In the final stage, through comparing actual or potential outcomes to the estimated deserved outcomes, an individual will come to a justice judgment. Further, Leventhal (1976) proposes general and specific determinants for the process of deciding the importance (weight) of each justice rule. General determinants influence the importance (weight) of

all justice rules in the same way, for example, self-interest and conformity, whereas the influence of specific determinants differs from one justice rule to another, for example, the mood and the experience of success or failure (Leventhal, 1976).

To sum up, it can be argued that all justice rules follow the equity rules in comparing inputs to outcomes; however, the difference will be in assessing the weight of each input and outcome. This argument is discussed further in Section 3.5.2, and a corresponding framework of analysis is presented in Chapter 5.

Although the outcome of the employee-employer exchange was the focus of the initial theorizing on justice in organizations (Brockner *et al.*, 1994), its research interests were in how to generate a fair outcome (discussed in Section 3.5.2) and how people react to an unfair outcome (Bies, 1987) (discussed in Section 3.5.4). Further, research has distinguished between fairness of outcomes and other related terms, for example, satisfaction with outcomes (e.g., Tyler, 1988), outcome level (e.g., Tyler and Caine, 1981), outcome negativity (e.g., Brockner *et al.*, 1994) and outcome favourability (favourableness) (e.g., Daly, 1995; Tyler, 1988).

3.3.2 Procedural justice

The other facet of organisational justice is Procedural Justice. There are several definitions for procedural justice. For example, Folger and Greenberg (1985, p. 143) conceive of procedural justice as 'the perceived fairness of procedures used in making decisions', resembling Bies and Shapiro (1988, p. 676) in considering procedural justice as 'the perceived fairness of the decision-making process'. Further, Folger and Cropanzano (1998, p. 26) claim that procedural justice 'refers to fairness issues concerning the methods, mechanism, and processes used to determine outcomes', which is congruent with Brockner and Siegel's (1996) articulating that procedural justice pertains to the 'fairness of the processes used to plan and implement the decision',

As an evolution to organisational justice, Thibaut and Walker (1975), who conducted their studies in legal procedures settings, present their pioneering

theory of procedural justice. To render the distinction between (highlight the differences of) procedural justice and distributive justice, Thibaut and Walker (1975, p.3) suggest that distributive justice could be achieved without any special procedure, for example, ‘when all parties spontaneously agree about a fair allocation’. Hence, when the

procedures are necessary, and only then, ... does the question of procedural justice arise. [Further], ...procedures may be applied to disputes having nothing to do with allocation, as in criminal suits in which the decision entails no allocation (unless that term is broadened to include “retributive” allocations). (Thibaut and Walker, 1975, p.3)

To determine what procedures are just, Thibaut and Walker (1975, pp. 1-2)

suggest that the just procedure for resolving the types of conflict that result in litigation is a procedure that entrusts much control over the process to the disputants themselves and relatively little control to decision maker.

Table 3.1 Forms of procedures according to sharing the control over process and decision

Procedural alternatives	Disputants have control over	Third party (adviser or decision maker) has control over
Autocratic	Nothing	Decision and process
Arbitration	Process	Decision
Mediation	Decision	Process
Bargaining	Decision and process	Nothing
Moot	Decision and process	Decision and process

Source: Adapted from Thibaut and Walker (1978)

In addition, they argue that this optimal distribution of control is the key requirement for procedural justice. Acknowledging that it is likely to provoke scepticism, they state that the allocation of so much power is the ‘ultimate conclusion’ of their research. They also argue that distribution of control is the essential dimension for analysing, comparing, and assessing the justice of all forms of dispute resolution (legal and non legal). Thibaut and Walker (1978) present five forms (see Table 3.1) of sharing control over process (labelled as ‘voice’) and decision (labelled as ‘choice’). These forms are autocratic, arbitrations, mediation, bargaining and moot. Distinguishing between the two terms of ‘voice’ and ‘process control’, Earley and Lind (1987) claim that albeit

both terms refer to procedural opportunities to express views about a decision, the former is used in writing about organisational and allocation procedures, whereas the latter is used in writing about legal and dispute procedures. On the other hand, 'decision control' or 'choice' refers to participating in the actual rendering of a decision via selection or veto (Brockner and Siegel, 1996; Earley and Lind, 1987).

In simulated dispute-resolution procedures, Thibaut and Walker (1975) found support for the effect of 'voice' on the perceived fairness of verdicts, even in the absence of any influence on the outcome. Further findings and arguments pertaining to the influence of voice and choice on perceived organisational justice are discussed in Section 3.5.3. These studies led a series of research and theorizing endeavours in an organisational context, though the influence of voice and choice was implied in earlier personnel research (Folger and Greenberg, 1985). One of these endeavours is Leventhal's (1976; 1980) theory of justice judgment, which pertains to both distributive justice and procedural justice, nevertheless, the procedural justice part received more attention from researchers (Greenberg, 1987). Regarding the procedural justice part of this theory, Leventhal (1980, p. 35) defines procedural justice as the 'perception of the fairness of the procedural components of the social system that regulates the allocative process'. Claiming that an individual develops cognitive maps of the allocation process, Leventhal (1980) identifies seven procedural components that may represent the structural elements in these cognitive maps:

- Selection of Agent: the sequence of events starts by choosing the agents who will gather information and/or make decisions.
- Setting Ground Rules: involves proclaiming to all potential outcome receivers available rewards, goals of performance and appraisal criteria.
- Gathering Information: involves deciding on the needed information about outcome receivers and collecting and utilizing this information.
- Decision Structure: entails the structure of the final decision process for distributing the outcomes.

- Appeals: entails the availability of opportunities to challenge the decision process or its outcomes.
- Safeguards: ensures the dominance of integrity and honesty through the whole process.
- Change Mechanism: a set of methods to change the procedures of allocation process, which would enhance the possibility to maintain fairness.

Arguing that an individual bases his/her judgment of procedural justice on justice rules, Leventhal (1980, p. 39-46) postulates six procedural justice rules:

- The consistency rule: consistency should be maintained across individuals and times, which resembles 'the notion of *equality of opportunities* [italics in the original]'
- The bias-suppression rule: dictates that prejudice, self-interest, and all types of bias should be prevented.
- The accuracy rule: dictates maximizing the accuracy of information about, and opinions of, all allocations receivers.
- The correctability rule: dictates that opportunities to appeal and modify the outcome must be present, formally and/or informally.
- The representativeness rule: dictates that interests and values of all affected individuals must be reflected in the allocation process.
- The ethicality rule: dictates that all distributive procedures must comply with moral and ethical values held by the individual who assesses procedural justice.

Nowakowski and Conlon (2005) consider that the representativeness rule coincides with the ideas of 'voice' and 'choice' as presented by Thibaut and Walker (1975). Because of the scarcity of relevant studies at that time, Leventhal (1980) declares that these rules are based only on descriptions by other commentators and his own observations. Claiming that an individual uses these rules selectively, Leventhal (1980) assumes that their importance (weight) differs from time to time.

On the other hand, several researchers (e.g., Brockner and Siegel, 1996; Tyler, 1989; Wiesenfeld *et. al.*, 2000) claim that procedural justice has two aspects: structure of the decision process, and interpersonal behaviour of decision implementer. The former (structural/formal aspect) subsumes process control (voice), decision control (choice), opportunities to correct, and consistency, while the later (social/informal aspect) is regarded as interactional justice (Brockner and Siegel, 1996). This debatable claim is discussed further in Section 3.4.

To sum up, these justice rules in addition to 'voice' and 'choice', constitute attributes of procedural justice. However, it is not yet clear whether these attributes of procedural justice have the same importance across contexts, and if these attributes can be represented by a smaller number of attributes (Ambrose and Kulik, 2001). For example, reporting an experiment on 336 undergraduate students, Barrett-Howard and Tyler (1986) asked the experiment subjects to assess the importance of procedural justice, distributive justice, and six non-fairness factors. Among these non-fairness factors, Barrett-Howard and Tyler (1986, p. 298) included some procedural attributes like 'factuality (procedure should be based on facts not intuition)', 'animosity prevention (procedure should not lead resentment among the involved parties)' and 'personal control (procedures should allow the decision maker to retain control)'. However, to avoid overlapping between factuality and the accuracy justice rule, the latter was defined as 'use of predictive factors'. In addition, to explore the meaning of procedural justice, Barrett-Howard and Tyler (1986) investigated the importance of Leventhal's (1980) justice rules in judging procedural justice and found that consistency across people, ethicality, bias suppression and accuracy to be the four key criteria to judge procedural justice. However, examining situational variations, Barrett-Howard and Tyler (1986) reported that bias suppression, accuracy, consistency and representativeness were more important in formal situations than informal situations, whereas consistency, accuracy and ethicality were more important in co-operative situations. It is noteworthy that although Barrett-Howard and Tyler (1986) divided consistency into two types -across people and across time-, only the former was a key criterion. Consistently,

reporting a survey, Tyler (1988) found that the meaning of procedural justice varies according to the situations, but not people, characteristics.

3.3.3 Interactional justice

As an extension to procedural justice, Bies and Moag (1986) were first to identify the term 'interactional justice'. Arguing that people have normative expectations about honesty and courtesy in communications, Bies and Moag (1986, p. 44) state that interactional justice refers to people's assessment of 'the quality of interpersonal treatment they receive during the enactment of organizational procedures'. According to Bies and Moag (1986), earlier theorizing either neglected the concerns about interpersonal treatment or confounded them with concerns about formal procedures. Nonetheless, the introduction of interactional justice was based on the growing empirical evidence found in previous research that the assessment of procedural justice is influenced by the enactment of procedures, which raised concerns about the propriety of a decision-maker's behaviour (Bies and Shapiro, 1987). Bies and Moag (1986) identified several attributes that influence interactional justice judgments, which can be categorized as treatment-related attributes (honesty, avoiding deception, courtesy, respect for individual rights, and propriety of behaviour) and as explanation-related attribute (justifying decisions).

As some of these attributes may overlap with the attributes of procedural justice identified in the previous section (e.g., avoiding deception), the importance of these attributes was confirmed in several studies, though, in some of those studies, these attributes were intended to represent procedural justice rather than interactional justice. For example, investigating factors that affect citizens' judgement of the procedural justice of legal authorities, Tyler (1988) assessed the importance of Leventhal's (1980) justice rules and the process and decision control proposed by Thibaut and Walker (1975). In this survey, participants reported several attribute of interactional justice to be the most important (Tyler, 1988). The overlap of attributes is discussed further in Section 3.4, in the light of the debate about organisational justice dimensionality. Despite the debate about whether interactional justice is a

separate type of fairness or an aspect of procedural justice, almost all modern justice scholars agree on the importance of interactional justice (Byrne and Cropanzano, 2001).

The introduction of interactional justice attracted many researchers' interest, though some of them may not share the idea of considering interactional justice as a separate facet of organisational justice (e.g., Greenberg, 1990). Consequently, deeming it as the interpersonal aspect of procedural justice, some researchers (e.g., Brockner and Siegel, 1996; Greenberg, 1990; Tyler and Bies, 1990) state that interactional justice consists of two major factors: providing adequate explanation, and treating affected persons with dignity and respect. These two aspects were reintroduced by Greenberg (1993b) as two separate facets of organisational justice, namely, 'informational justice' and 'interpersonal justice', respectively. Greenberg (1993b) proposes a taxonomy of justice classes that is based on two dimensions: category of justice (procedural and distributive) and focal determinant (structural and social). The names of the resulting classes of justice are shown in Table 3.2. Categorizing justice as distributive and procedural is based on the distinction between content and process, whereas the immediate focus of justice action is the base for the distinction between structural determinants (i.e., the focus on environmental context) and social determinants (i.e., the focus on treatment of individuals) (Greenberg, 1993b). In other words, structural determinants maintain fairness by focussing on structuring the decision-making context (e.g., following justice rules), whereas social determinants focus on the interpersonal treatment that a person receives (e.g., treating receivers with courtesy) to maintain fairness (Greenberg, 1993b).

Table 3.2 A taxonomy of justice classes

	Category of justice	
Focal determinants	Procedural	Distributive
Structural	Systemic justice	Configural justice
Social	Informational justice	Interpersonal justice

Source: Greenberg (1993b)

According to Greenberg (1993b), 'systemic justice' refers to the procedural justice that is accomplished via structural means, i.e., that was presented by Thibaut and Walker (1995) and Leventhal (1980), whereas 'configural justice'

refers to distributive justice that is accomplished via structural means, i.e., that was presented by Homans (1961), Adams (1965), and Deutsch (1975). The other justice classes (informational and interpersonal) are discussed in the following two sections. However, it is noteworthy that the way Greenberg (1993b) argues that the focus on social determinant is applicable to procedural justice and distributive justice, resembles the argument of Cropanzano and Ambrose (2001) that interactional justice has two facets: procedural and distributive.

(I) Informational justice

Since providing adequate information about procedures promotes this justice class, Greenberg (1993b) used the term 'informational justice' to refer to the social determinants of procedural justice. Informational justice pertains to providing knowledge (about the used procedures and the received outcomes) to the receivers (Colquitt *et al.*, 2001). Providing adequate information, in terms of quality and amount, can take several forms, for example, honest and candid information, or reasonable justification (Bies and Moag, 1986). Providing adequate justification was found to enhance fairness (interactional justice and procedural justice) assessments and approval ratings, and to mitigate affective reactions, of the outcomes' receivers (Bies and Shapiro, 1987). Providing a high amount of thorough information about the reason behind the decision (of a smoking ban), enhanced the acceptance of the decision as well as the assessment of procedural justice (Greenberg, 1994). Further, Greenberg (1991) found that workers who received their performance appraisals accompanied by written explanations for their ratings, reported significantly higher perceived fairness, compared to those who did not receive the written explanations. Similarly, Daly (1995) reported that providing justification for the decision influenced positively the judgment of procedural justice, however, when employees assessed the distributive justice of change outcomes, the influence of providing justification was moderated by outcome favourability (the employee expect justification only when they receive negative outcomes). Such results suggest that informational justice (social aspect of procedural justice) forms an essential element of reactions to procedural injustice (Greenberg, 1993b).

(II) Interpersonal justice

Greenberg (1993b) used the term 'interpersonal justice' to refer to the social determinant of distributive justice, especially that treating outcomes' receivers with dignity and respect can alter their reactions to decision outcomes. Therefore, showing concern for people regarding the outcomes they receive would enhance this justice class. For example, Tyler (1988) found that showing politeness and respect to citizens' rights positively influenced their perceptions of the fairness of authorities' treatment. Another example, showing a high amount of social sensitivity and concern for those who are affected by the decision (of smoking ban), enhanced the acceptance of the decision as well as the assessment of procedural justice (Greenberg, 1994). In a laboratory study, Greenberg (1993c) found that interpersonal sensitivity moderated stealing as a reaction to underpayment inequity, (i.e., high sensitivity reduced stealing more than low sensitivity). In addition, apologies may express such concern for people's received outcomes (Greenberg, 1993b). For example, Greenberg (1991) found that those who received low ratings for their performance appraisals but were accompanied by written apologies for their ratings, perceived their ratings to be fairer than those who did not receive written apologies did.

3.4 The debate of organisational justice dimensionality

Adopting new concepts (e.g., interactional justice) can be of value if these concepts could explain additional variance in important dependent variables. On the other hand, there is a threat to parsimony in scientific explanation in case of concept redundancy (Schwab, 1980). Consequently, there are several debates on the dimensionality of organisational justice, and whether each facet constitutes a separate construct.

Before 1975, the study of organisational justice was primarily concerned with distributive justice, therefore, the oldest debate on organisational justice dimensionality emerged after the seminal work of Thibaut and Walker (1975) (discussed in Section 3.3.2), and it pertains to the independence of procedural justice and distributive justice (Colquitt *et al.*, 2001). Initially, this debate is

based on the results of several studies that reported high correlations between distributive justice and procedural justice. (e.g., Sweeney and McFarlin (1997) reported $r = .72$), which led Folger (1987) to argue that such high correlations may imply that these justice facets are not distinct in the minds of many perceivers. In addition, Colquitt *et al.* (2001) argue that such results may also led Martocchio and Judge (1995) to combined procedural justice and distributive justice in one variable, organisational justice, in their study on disciplinary decisions. However, Greenberg (1993a) argues that the lack of standardized measurement for distributive justice and procedural justice, which in part is due to the absence of a uniform understanding of what constitutes fair and unfair procedures, hinders the comparability of the relevant studies.

Years later, the same debate re-emerged when Cropanzano and Ambrose (2001) presented their monistic perspective. Nonetheless, another facet of organisational justice (interactional justice) was included in the re-emerged debate. Arguing that the same event, including an interpersonal event, can be seen as an outcome in one case and as a process or procedure in another case, Cropanzano and Ambrose (2001) labelled this argument as 'point-of-view effects'. For example, when people are seeking to change a policy, the new (changed) policy is considered as an outcome from the perspective of those who sought the new policy. Simultaneously, such policy is normally considered as a procedure and its consequences as outcomes, from the perspective of those who receive these consequences. In addition, Cropanzano and Ambrose (2001, p. 132) argue that

the effect that processes have on outcome reactions is mirrored by the effect the outcomes have on process reactions.

Based on these arguments, Cropanzano and Ambrose (2001) present their monistic perspective of organisational justice dimensionality, claiming that distributive justice and procedural justice (including interactional justice) are more similar than distinct, but their distinction is valuable. Further, the high correlation between distributive justice and procedural justice may imply that the two facets affect each other (Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2001).

Similarly, Bobocel and Holmvall (2001, p. 85) claim that there is a great consensus in the literature of organisational justice on the distinction between distributive justice and procedural justice, nonetheless,

There is a growing uncertainty as to whether it is meaningful to distinguish the concepts of interactional justice and procedural justice.

The distinction between distributive justice and procedural justice was also explored by Ambrose and Arnaud (2005) through following the same frame of debate proposed by Bobocel and Holmvall (2001) (discussed later in this section). Ambrose and Arnaud (2005) concluded that distributive justice and procedural justice are distinct at the theory level, can be operationalised and measured independently, have different consequences, and have different antecedents.

After Bies and Moag (1986) claimed interactional justice as a third type of justice, Bies retracted this position (Tyler and Bies, 1990). Following Bies' new position, some researchers regard interactional justice as the informal (social) aspect of procedural justice (e.g., Brockner and Siegel, 1996; Folger and Greenberg, 1985; Lind and Tyler, 1988), whereas other researchers stick to the narrow conceptualisation of procedural justice and consider interactional justice as a separate concept that represents the social aspect of the decision process (Bobocel and Holmvall, 2001). Although most researchers agree on the importance of the two aspects of procedures (structural/formal and social/informal), researchers have not yet reached consensus on whether people's concerns about these two aspects should be conceptualised as separate constructs (procedural justice and interactional justice, respectively) or as a single construct (namely, procedural justice) (Bobocel and Holmvall, 2001).

To frame this debate about procedural justice and interactional justice, Bobocel and Holmvall (2001) draw on Schwab's (1980) analysis, and pose four principal questions to judge whether these two concepts are different. The first question was whether procedural justice and interactional justice are distinguishable at the theoretical level in respect with construct definition and underlying psychological mechanism. Regarding construct definition, Bobocel

and Holmvall (2001) argue that distinguishing these concepts depends on the definition of procedural justice that one adopts. Specifically, procedural justice and interactional justice are distinguishable when following the definition of Thibaut and Walker (1975) and Leventhal (1980), while they are not when following the definition of Lind and Tyler (1988) that embraces both concepts. Regarding an underlying psychological mechanism, Bobocel and Holmvall (2001) claim that it is not yet clear in organisational justice literature whether people care about the structural and social part of procedures for the same or different underlying psychological reasons. Especially, Bobocel and Holmvall (2001, p. 91) claim that the psychological mechanism that could distinguish people's concerns about these aspects was not clearly delineated by Bies and Moag (1986), who introduced interactional justice.

The second question was whether procedural justice and interactional justice can be operationalized and measured independently. Bobocel and Holmvall (2001) argue that although, in some cases, the perception of procedural justice and interactional justice is highly related, in other cases, people can, and do, distinguish these two procedural aspects. Nevertheless, Bobocel and Holmvall (2001) highlight the absence of standard measures of procedural justice and interactional justice, and identify four ways in which the existing measures of procedural justice and interactional justice vary. First, all measures reported in the literature do not appear to tap the content domain they purport to do, especially that some of these measures that claim to assess interactional justice often include items that are used by other researchers to assess procedural justice and vice versa. Second, some measures aim at assessing general fairness, while other measures aim at assessing fairness of a specific context. Third, some measures assess fairness perceptions directly (e.g., are the procedures fair?), while other measures assess them indirectly (e.g., were the procedures applied consistently?). Fourth, measures of procedural justice and interactional justice differ in terms of the content of justice (e.g., procedures vs. treatments) and the source of justice (e.g., organisation vs. supervisor).

The third question to frame the debate was whether procedural justice and interactional justice have different effects. Bobocel and Holmvall (2001) argue

that the absence of standard measures for procedural justice and interactional justice, discussed in the previous paragraph, as well as adopting cross-sectional methodology that does not allow conclusions regarding causality, impede answering this question. In addition, the pattern of result reported by some experimental work does not support separating justice concepts.

The fourth question was whether procedural justice and interactional justice have different determinants. Bobocel and Holmvall (2001) state that several studies found that some criteria (e.g., providing explanations) that purported to influence the perception of interactional justice have the same influence on the perception of procedural justice, indicating the overlap between the two constructs. However, Bobocel and Holmvall (2001) add that this question of different antecedents was tested in few experimental studies and found some evidence.

Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) reported a meta-analysis study that examined 190 studies, and concluded that although distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice are strongly related, the distinction between them is merited. On the other hand, in several studies, the high correlation between interactional justice and procedural justice led the researchers to combine them into one variable, procedural justice (e.g., Skarlicki and Latham, 1997, $r = .77$; Mansour-Cole and Scott, 1998, $r = .80$). Likewise, arguing that interactional justice represents the non-formally-institutionalised aspect of organisational justice, Folger and Cropanzano (1998) deem procedural justice and interactional justice to be process-related factors. Nonetheless, they refer the conflation of procedural justice and interactional justice constructs to the bias in viewing them 'as factors relevant to assigning someone blame' (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998, p. 37). However, Mikula et al. (1990, p. 143) state that 'both viewpoints are equally reasonable', nonetheless, separating the processes of decision-making and interpersonal treatment by decision-makers seems impossible.

Accepting that interactional justice is distinguishable from procedural justice, there is another debate on whether the interpersonal and informational aspects of interactional justice are separable (Colquitt *et al.*, 2001). After

introducing interpersonal and information justice by Greenberg (1993b), the debate about organisational justice dimensionality went further for a four-facet structure. Greenberg (1993b) claims that interpersonal justice and informational justice are logically distinct, have different effects, and should be separated. Claiming that it has not been empirically tested before, Colquitt (2001) found support for the four-facet dimensionality of organisational justice in two separate studies. However, Colquitt (2001) acknowledges that the four-facet dimensionality of organisational justice seems inconsistent with some past research. Further, Colquitt *et al.* (2001) reported a meta-analytic review of 183 justice studies and concluded that, although different justice dimensions had high to moderate correlations, they explained significant incremental variance in fairness perceptions. Nonetheless, informational and interpersonal justice had small contributions compared to other facets of organisational justice, and made a less important contribution when considered in conjunction with the structural aspect of procedural justice (Colquitt *et al.*, 2001).

To sum up, despite the achieved progress, the dimensionality of organisational justice is still debatable, and the question of whether the domain of organisational justice enfolds one, two, three, or four facets of justice, is still not fully answered (Bobocel and Holmvall, 2001; Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt *et al.*, 2001; Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2001). There is, however, a great (nearly universal) consensus on the division of fairness into distributive justice and procedural justice (Bobocel and Holmvall, 2001; Byrne and Cropanzano, 2001), which has become canon in the literature of organisational justice (Colquitt *et al.*, 2001). Therefore, at this stage, the two-facet dimensionality is adopted in this study. Nevertheless, to encompass all organisational justice facets in this study, each facet is assessed in at least one item and the dimensionality is reconsidered in the light of the results of the factor analysis. This issue is addressed in Chapter 6 (research design) and Chapter 7 (data analysis). Consequently, the arguments and hypotheses developed for this study (in Chapter 5) are concerned with organisational justice, to embrace all justice facets.

3.5 Reviewing justice theories and models

Although the earliest theories of organisational justice were originally designed to address general social interactions (Greenberg, 1990; Tyler and Lind, 1990), Greenberg (1987, 1990) listed many disciplines of organisational research to which these justice theories were applicable. His lists included personnel selection, labour disputes, wage negotiation (Greenberg, 1987), equitable payment, resolution of grievances (Greenberg, 1990), to name just a few. The same can be discerned about later endeavours concerning procedural justice, which its applicability appeared to be much broader than those who engendered it anticipated (Greenberg, 1990; Tyler and Lind, 1990), and the importance of procedural justice and its consequences was demonstrated in a wide range of organisational settings (Ambrose and Kulik, 2001). For example, research on procedural justice embraced contexts regarding students assessing their teachers, citizens assessing their political leaders (Tyler and Caine, 1981) and allocation settings beyond conflict resolutions (Barrett-Howard and Tyler, 1986).

In addition, organisational justice was applied to downsizing contexts such as restructuring, relocation and job loss. For example, in order to assess the outcomes of layoff on the leavers, Wanberg *et al.* (1999, p. 60) studied the perceived fairness of layoff that 'refers to an individual overall assessment of whether a layoff was conducted in a fair and just manner'. However, they emphasized that 'there have been relatively few studies assessing the predictors of the perceived fairness of layoffs among layoff victims' (Wanberg *et al.*, 1999, p. 60). Likewise, Byrne and Cropanzano (2001) reported Bies' recommendation (as one of the founders of organisational justice research) to address current business issues like downsizing.

Greenberg (1987) suggests a taxonomy for theories of organisational justice, which is based on two independent dimensions: a reactive-proactive dimension and a process-content dimension, yielding four categories. The first category 'reactive-content' comprises theories that focus on individuals' reactions to unfair outcomes. Theories in the second category, 'proactive-content', focus on engendering fair outcomes. The focus of theories in the

third category, 'reactive-process', is on how individuals react to the fairness of allocation procedures. Finally, the fourth category 'proactive-process' includes theories that focus on procedures that would achieve justice. Referring to the three waves of organisational justice (Brockner and Siegel, 1996), all content theories, reactive and proactive, appeared out of the first wave, whereas all process theories, reactive and proactive, appeared out of the second wave. However, dividing theories according to the process-content dimension may need reconsideration in the light of the monistic perspective proposed by Cropanzano and Ambrose (2001) (discussed in Section 3.4). For example, although procedural justice pertains to means, processes and procedures, while distributive justice pertains to ends, contents and outcomes, an individual may consider procedures as a means or as an end by themselves and, accordingly, judge their fairness (Folger and Greenberg, 1985). Further, distributive justice rules (need, equity, and equality) are applicable to procedures (Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2001); for example, queuing may not be fair in the case of an emergency, which entails applying the justice rule of need. Therefore, it is suggested to consider the importance of each justice facets in different situations. For example, building on the results of their experiment on 336 undergraduate students, Barrett-Howard and Tyler (1986) claim that, across different interpersonal relationships, the importance of procedural justice is not less than the importance of distributive justice; although, the importance of procedural justice in formal relationships transcended informal ones.

There are several arguments to explain the override of one of the organisational justice aspects over the other in different situations. Leventhal *et al.* (1980, p. 172) hypothesized that for a number of reasons, results of allocation are likely to be more salient than the procedures that engender these allocation results. For example, because of the complexity of social systems, such as groups and organisations, and because most of the members of these social systems are aware of only some aspects of their systems, these members may recognise merely the results, especially when they have little knowledge of 'comparable systems with different procedures' (Leventhal *et al.*, 1980, p. 172). On the other hand, Leventhal *et al.* (1980,

p.173) argue that those reasons may not be valid (i.e., have exceptions) when 'influential members of the system feel dissatisfied with the existing distributions' and try to 'find flaws to justify their demands for change'. Similarly, Folger (1986, p. 152) states that when the actual outcomes do not match the desired ones, the question of 'why not?' arises, especially when the alternative means is imaginable.

To sum up, both procedural justice and distributive justice are important as well as separating them into two constructs; nonetheless, they may exchange places according the 'point-of-view effects' discussed earlier in Section 3.4. However it would seem likely that the importance of procedural justice will pertain to the importance of procedures in securing the desired outcomes. For example, leavers in a downsizing organisation are probably more concerned than other employees in the fairness of the criteria used in selecting who will leave. Such people are more likely to be concerned with procedural justice than others. Consequently, perceived low procedural justice is a source of anger and dislike which is targeted towards whoever is deemed as responsible for it (Lind and Tyler, 1988). Nevertheless, this plausible explanation represents the self-interest perspective, whereas other plausible explanations are discussed in Section 3.5.1.

On the other hand, arguing that justice can be viewed as a class of motivated behaviour, Cropanzano *et al.* (2001) claim that the way organisational psychologists classified motivation theories fits well as a framework for classifying theories of fairness. Consequently, they classified justice theories into two broad categories: content focus and process focus. It is important to emphasize that the similarity in labelling these categories and the proposed dimension of Greenberg's (1987) taxonomy is not reflected in their meanings. According to the classification proposed by Cropanzano *et al.* (2001), content theories are concerned with why people make fairness judgment, whereas process theories provide generalized explanations of how people make fairness judgment.

Combining the taxonomy suggested by Greenberg (1987) and the classification proposed by Cropanzano *et al.* (2001), it can be argued that the

literature of organisational justice addresses at least four areas: explaining people's concerns about justice, exploring the way people make justice assessment, investigating the consequences of justice assessments, and identifying factors affecting justice judgment. This combination does not overlook Greenberg's (1987) proposed dimension of process-content (procedure-outcome), rather it articulates that what is applicable to procedural justice is applicable to distributive justice and vice versa. Towards the end of this chapter, the literature review is structured according to these four areas.

Thus far, the previous sections of this chapter dealt with the construct of organisational justice and its different aspects. Nonetheless, the issue of organisational fairness is addressed as part of leavers' perception of downsizing. Specifically, this study focuses on leavers' perception of distributive justice and procedural justice regarding downsizing. Therefore, this focus will be reflected when addressing the factors that affect justice judgment.

3.5.1 Explaining people's concerns about justice

The literature of organisational justice proposes several reasons to explain the concern about justice. For example, Leventhal (1976, 1980) articulates five reasons that would activate distributive justice evaluation or re-evaluation: a change in the level of outcomes, believing that a justice rule has been violated, occupying a social role for assessing deservingness (e.g. referee), not being preoccupied with more important activities and, finally, being a member in pluralist social system (multiparty system of governance).

On the other hand, Cropanzano *et al.* (2001) argue that, historically, organisational justice researchers explained people's concerns about justice by three reasons. First, justice secures their economic best interest. Second, justice asserts individuals' identities within their groups. Third, people, at least most of them, act according to their basic respect for human dignity and worth. However, Folger (1998) argues the first two reasons are driven by self-interest, and he reviews evidence that supports the third reason. Consequently, Cropanzano *et al.* (2001) present their 'multiple needs model of

justice' and propose four psychological needs that might answer why people make fairness judgment. These needs are the need for control (first reason), need for positive self-regard (second reason), need for belonging (second reason), need for meaning (third reason).

3.5.2 Exploring the way people make justice judgments

Before exploring how people make justice judgements, it is beneficial to consider the difference between objective justice and subjective justice judgment. Expressing their focus on the subjective justice, Lind and Tyler (1988) highlight the distinction between subjective (psychological response) and objective (state of affairs) justice. Acknowledging its potential inaccuracy, they claim that objective procedural justice

concerns the capacity of a procedure to conform to normative standards of justice, to make either the decisions themselves or the decision-making process more fair by, for example, reducing some clearly unacceptable bias or prejudice. (Lind and Tyler, 1988, p. 3)

Since the normative standard of justice can be divided into two categories, those dealing with outcomes and those dealing with processes (Lind and Tyler, 1988), it can be argued that this claim can be extended to refer to objective distributive justice. On the other hand, Lind and Tyler (1988, pp. 3-4) claim that subjective procedural justice 'concerns the capacity of each procedure to enhance the fairness judgments of those who encounter procedures'. As people 'design their lives so that they deserve, are entitled to, what they want or modify their desires to fit what they can deserve' (Lerner, 1977, p.5), it can be argued that this claim can be extended to refer to subjective distributive justice. Further, according to Adams (1965), in order to consider an attribute as input or outcome, a person assesses whether it is recognizable and relates to the exchange. This assessment is a source of subjectivity.

Ambrose and Kulik (2001) state that the cognitive processes that people apply to translate information about objective procedures into subjective fairness judgments were not sufficiently addressed by researchers. Nonetheless, since the earliest theorizing about organisational justice, discussed in Section

3.3.1, several approaches to explore how people judge justice were proposed. In chronological order, summaries of some key justice theories that were deemed the most relevant to this study are presented in the following four sections.

(I) Egoistic relative deprivation

Many researchers (e.g., Adams, 1965; Folger and Martin, 1986; Greenberg, 1990) agree that the term of 'relative deprivation' was first used by Stouffer *et al.* (1949) to explain anomalous findings regarding differences in felt deprivation, though, it was not defined clearly then. However, deprivation is an attitude engendered by the belief that one is receiving less than what one deserves (Martin 1981). Deprivation implies the feeling of discontent (Martin, 1981). It is captured as the perception of injustice, and is usually treated as an unmeasured latent construct (Martin, 1981).

With an integrative endeavour and building on previous models and alternative theories, Crosby (1976) presents her egoistical deprivation model, positing five preconditions for relative deprivation to occur. She argues that in order to feel resentment for not possessing something (X), an individual must: see similar others (Other) possess X, want X, feel eligible to possess X, feel it is feasible to possess X, and not blame himself for not possessing X (see Table 3.3) (Crosby, 1976).

According to this model, the feeling of deprivation implies a feeling of injustice, or, in Adams' (1965) term, inequity. Nonetheless, this feeling of injustice appears to be directed toward a certain outcome that was not received, i.e., it represents a special case of inequity, in which Person recognised X as an outcome and perceived its relevance to the exchange, but did not receive it. Further, the proposed preconditions, therefore, are prerequisites for this case of injustice.

Table 3.3 Overview of the model of egoistic relative deprivation

Intervening variables/basic terms				
Determinants	Phase 1 (Preconditions)	Phase 2	Phase 3 Mediating variables	Resultant behaviours
Personality traits Personal past Immediate environment Societal dictates Biological needs	See that Other possesses X Want X Feel that one deserves X Think it feasible to obtain X Lack a sense of responsibility for failure to possess X	Relative deprivation	Intropunitive/Extrapunitive High/low personal control Opportunities	Stress symptoms Self-improvement Violence against society Constructive change of society

Note: X is something such as an attribute or opportunity
Source: Crosby (1976, p. 89)

Crosby (1976) suggests several determinants (see Table 3.3) that would influence the feeling of relative deprivation. These determinants can be divided into personal (personality traits, personal past and biological needs) and environmental (immediate environment and societal dictates). Since they can be deemed as factors affecting justice judgment, these determinants identified by this model are discussed in Section 3.5.3. On the other hand, the resultant behaviours proposed in this model are discussed in Section 3.5.4, as they represent the consequences of justice judgment.

Regarding the context of this study, it can be argued that the feeling of relative deprivation can emerge because of compulsory job loss. In this case, a compulsory leaver would see that other civil servants retained their jobs, while s/he wants to retain his/her job, feels that s/he deserves to do so, thinks it is obtainable, and does not feel responsible for that job loss. On the other hand, if any of these five conditions were missing, a compulsory leaver would not feel deprived. Nonetheless, this would not mean that a compulsory leaver would not feel injustice, as the feeling of relative deprivation can be considered as a special case of injustice. Nevertheless, this model identifies key factors that affect organisational justice judgement, of which locus of control. This factor is explored later in Section 3.5.4.

(II) Informed self-interest model vs. group-value model

Although these models have implications for people's concerns about fairness (Cropanzano *et al.*, 2001), they are reviewed to answer how people make a fairness judgment. Including their own image of the procedural justice judgement, Lind and Tyler (1988) present a reconciliation of these two procedural justice models: self-interest and group value models. The former is referred to as 'the instrumental model', while the latter is referred to as 'the relational model' (Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2001; Cropanzano *et al.*, 2001). As both models found support, occasionally in the same studies, Lind and Tyler (1988) recommend using them both to explain the psychological part of procedural justice.

Lind and Tyler (1988) argue that self-interest theories, which are prevalent across the behavioural and social sciences, were the bases of the earliest procedural justice theories. Nevertheless, resembling 'informed self-interest model', these theories included a stipulation that entails curbing egoistic preferences to receive outcomes that are available only through co-operating with others (Lind and Tyler, 1988). In other words, consistent with other self-interest models, the informed self-interest model suggests that individuals gain more through co-operation than they do alone (Lind and Tyler, 1988).

As the informed self-interest model resembles other self-interest models, the group value model resembles other group identification models in social psychology (Lind and Tyler, 1988). Emphasising the influence of the value associated with group membership, Lind and Tyler (1988) name this model the 'group value model'. For example, as members of groups (e.g., a family group or a large organisation), people receive emotional and material support (Tyler, 1989). Lind and Tyler (1988, p. 231) state that

According to this model, affective relations within and between groups and cognitive constructions with respect to those relations; are potent determinants of attitudes and behavior.

The most influential two elements governing the behaviours and attitudes of the group's members are: (1) group identity that defines the external features and distinguishes the group from any other group, and (2) group procedures that define the internal features and regulate formal and informal group activities and relations (Lind and Tyler, 1988). Lind and Tyler (1988) argue that the importance of evaluating procedural justice of the group stems out of the importance of its procedures themselves. In addition, to secure long-term outcomes instead of focusing on short-term outcomes, group members would expect neutrality from their group authority (Tyler, 1989). Further, a group's values and beliefs regarding different aspects, including procedural justice, are instilled through socializing, where the old member teaches the new member (Lind and Tyler, 1988). Arguing that judgement of procedural justice may be independent from facts, Lind and Tyler (1988) state that it depends on the degree of congruence between group values and the perceiver's values. This would result in a reciprocal influence between procedural justice and

other group-relevant attitudes (i.e., overall attitudes towards the group would influence the judgement of procedural justice and vice versa). Presenting the group value model, Lind and Tyler (1988) argued that Leventhal's (1980) justice rules (explained in Section 3.3.1) would influence justice judgement as long as they are implied in the group's value.

Regarding the context of this study, the reciprocal influence between attitudes towards the group and the judgement of procedural justice regarding the group may not exist after job loss, as in this case leavers are not members of their previous organisation. This reciprocal influence is explored further in Section 3.5.4.

(III) Referent cognition theory

The existence of different evaluation standards that can be applied when assessing outcomes (discussed in Section 3.3.1) is conceptualised as imaginable alternative states by Referent Cognition Theory (Folger and Martin, 1986). Offering a means for integrating distributive justice and procedural justice (Cropanzano and Folger, 1989), Referent Cognition Theory involves the psychology of 'what might have been' (Folger, 1986, p. 147). Explicating the role of procedural justice in shaping the perception of distributive justice through a '*would/should* phenomenological account' (Cropanzano and Folger, 1989, p. 293), Referent Cognition Theory alludes to the thinking of what *would* have resulted, as the decision-maker *should* have behaved otherwise (Folger and Martin, 1986).

In contrast to the proposition of equity theory, Folger (1986) claims that social comparison is not an essential aspect of referential thinking where an individual can compare the actual outcome to an imaginable outcome. For example, a personal promise made to a certain individual alone can be a source of an imaginable outcome (Folger, 1986). Folger (1986) presented Referent Cognition Theory and identified its elements: referent outcome level, perceived likelihood of amelioration, and level of justification. These elements, besides their interactions, would influence perceiving and reacting to unfairness or inequity (Folger, 1986). Referent outcomes refer to an

imaginable outcome that could have occurred, where high referent outcomes means that it is better than reality and low referent outcome implies that it is worse than reality (Folger, 1986). The referent outcome is the base for feelings of dissatisfaction (Folger, 1986). Perceived likelihood of amelioration, the second element, refers to the perceived possibility of improving the outcomes (Folger, 1986). As discussed in Section 2.7.3, re-employment after job loss can mitigate the influence of job loss, and consequently, affect leavers' perception of downsizing and its fairness. This mitigating effect demonstrates the impact of perceived likelihood of amelioration. The third element refers to the levels of justification for the instrumental circumstances 'instrumentalities' that brought about the outcomes, where high level implies good reasons and low level means bad reasons (Folger, 1986). Actual instrumentalities can be compared to imaginable referent instrumentalities and this comparison 'is the basis for feelings of injustice comprising resentment and righteous indignation' (Folger, 1986, p. 151).

Moderated by the level of justification, Referent Cognition Theory postulates that an individual would express a form of hostile feelings towards the person who is responsible for his/her unfavourable outcomes (Folger and Martin, 1986). Regardless of the level of outcomes, these hostile feelings may be inhibited by high-justification procedures (Cropanzano and Folger, 1989). In situations of low-justification, Referent Cognition Theory predicts that discontent would be greater for individuals with high-referent than individuals with low-referent (Folger *et al.*, 1983a).

The moderating role of the 'level of justification' provides support for the effect of the 'reason behind downsizing' on the leavers' perception of downsizing and its fairness. This effect is discussed in Section 3.5.4.

As a support for Referent Cognition Theory hypotheses, Folger and his colleagues (Cropanzano and Folger, 1989; Folger, 1986; Folger and Martin, 1986; Folger *et al.*, 1983a; Folger *et al.*, 1983b) presented results of laboratory experiments acknowledging 'that they should be interpreted in the context of the specific experimental paradigm that produced them' (Folger and Martin, 1986, p. 271). For example, the Referent Cognition Theory proposal that

resentment would be maximised in the case of high referent and high instrumentalities was tested in a laboratory experiment on 63 female undergraduates and was supported (Cropanzano and Folger, 1989). In Folger and colleagues' experiments, instrumentalities were manipulated by changing who played the role of decision-maker, yielding two groups: self-decision-making and other-decision-making. The first group represents low-instrumentalities and the second group represents high-instrumentalities.

Summarising the results of these experiments, Folger *et al.* (1983a) found an interaction between referent-level and justification-level in reporting on angry and resentful measures, specifically, only within low-justification individuals; high-referent reported more angry and resentful than low-referent. Manipulating referent levels was based on social comparison, so each subject was informed of a colleague's performance (Folger *et al.*, 1983a). However, the presence of this interaction was not supported for measures of dissatisfied and upset (Folger *et al.*, 1983a). Moreover, contrary to what Folger *et al.* (1983a) postulated, low-referent, low-justification individuals did not report more hostile feelings than their high-justification counterparts did. This unexpected result led Folger and Martin (1986) to test the effect of situational context, which entails the importance of the instrumentalities for the subjects of the experiment in the long-term. Specifically, the situational context was manipulated through requesting subjects' endorsements for the experimenter to be hired yielding two contexts: endorsement-context (subjects' endorsements were requested) and ordinary-context (subjects' endorsements were not requested). Using prior expectation instead of social comparison to induce referent levels, Folger *et al.*'s (1983a) results were replicated in Folger and Martin's (1986) experiment regarding ordinary-context. As no interaction was present in the endorsement-context, the situational context was found to be a qualifying condition for the referent-justification interaction (Folger and Martin, 1986). Nonetheless, a justification main effect was manifested in both contexts, i.e., regardless of the referent level, low-justification individuals expressed more discontent than high-justification.

Folger *et al.* (1983b) reported results of a laboratory experiment that was conducted to test the effect of the interaction between the level of amelioration

likelihood and level of outcome referent on reported discontent and perceived fairness. These results were supporting the hypothesis that the combination of low-likelihood/high-referent engenders higher discontent than the other combinations (in descending order of discontent: low- likelihood/low-referent, high- likelihood/low-referent, and high-likelihood/high-referent). However, albeit questions about fairness were less sensitive to the differences of these combinations, likelihood main effect was significant ($p = .005$) regarding the fairness of the expected outcome and marginally significant ($p = .08$) regarding the fairness of treating subjects differently (in both cases low-likelihood subjects reported lower fairness) (Folger *et al.*, 1983b). Other researchers' findings (e.g., Bies, 1987; Bies and Shapiro, 1987; Bies and Shapiro, 1988; Daly, 1995) provided support to Referent Cognition Theory claims, (see social accounts in Section 3.5.3). The Referent Cognition Theory was updated by the Fairness Theory, discussed in the next section.

(IV) Fairness theory

Integrating Referent Cognition Theory and other justice theories, Folger and Cropanzano (1998) present their model of Fairness Theory encompassing the three facets of organisational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional). Proposing that certain processes involving accountability are essential to understand reactions to perceived injustice, Folger and Cropanzano (1998) state that moral accountability entails conduct, principles, and states of well-being of the affected parties. Resembling would/should analysis of Referent Cognition Theory, Folger and Cropanzano (1998) name the elements of Fairness Theory as Would, Could, and Should counterfactuals. Emphasising the distinction between the negative impact of an event and whether someone is held accountable for it, Folger and Cropanzano (1998) state that the first element (Would) concentrates on magnitude of the negative impact of an event, whereas the remaining two elements (Could and Should) concentrate on accountability for that impact. Claiming that perception of social fairness involves contrastive reasoning, Folger and Cropanzano (1998) used the word counterfactual to describe the imaginable alternative (of outcomes or instrumentalities).

The element 'Would' refers to raising, spontaneously or deliberately, the question 'what it *would* have been like under other circumstances', which compares the actual procedures, outcomes and interpersonal conduct to the imaginable or counterfactual alternatives (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998, pp. 182-183). The resulting discrepancy of this comparison reflects the significance and magnitude of the event's negative impact (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998, p. 175). It is noteworthy that according to Referent Cognition Theory, actual-imaginable comparison pertains only to outcomes.

Representing the feasibility aspect of accountability, the second element, Could, refers to 'having the capacity to make difference in what happened', which is labelled as discretionary conduct (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998, p. 185). According to Fairness Theory, if there were no feasible alternatives, the victim may not hold the perpetrator accountable for the event (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998). Linking perpetrator's discretionary conduct to its consequences, the third element, Should, refers to acting according to moral guidelines (i.e., the way a person should act), which represents the morality aspect of accountability (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998). Therefore, to hold the perpetrator accountable for the event's consequences, Fairness Theory stipulates the existence of the two aspects of accountability: Could and Should (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998).

(V) Proposed reconciliation

These theories provide plausible methods of how individuals judge fairness. Nonetheless, it is probably impossible to predict how exactly an individual perform his/her fairness judgement. For example, it is hard to determine who is the referent Other for Person.

To arrive to a plausible combination for the discussed theories and models, the following arguments are considered. First, the reviewed justice theories suggest that an individual's judgement of distributive justice of a social exchange is actually a process of comparing what s/he obtained (actual outcome) to what s/he ought to obtain, which is determined by his/her input, referent outcome, or deserved outcome. Hence, factors affecting this

judgement are probably affecting the individual or combined assessments of actual outcome, input, referent outcome, and deserved outcome. Second, bearing in mind that input might subsume anything -even needs-, equity theory (Adams, 1965) suggests that to fulfil fairness, the (actual) outcome should equal the input across all individuals. Third, since 'deserved outcome' and 'referent outcome' are defined as a comparing object for the actual outcome to determine the latter's fairness (see Sections 3.3.1 and 3.5.2), it can be concluded that to fulfil fairness, they should equal the actual outcome, especially because when they exceeded the actual outcome, it is regarded as positive unfairness or positive inequity (Adams, 1965). Fourth, as 'input', 'referent outcomes', and 'deserved outcomes' are proportioned to the same amount (i.e., actual outcomes) and these proportions are equal, then the three formers are equals (see Figure 3.1). Fifth, since what is deemed as a fair correlation between input and outcome of an exchange is determined, according to Adams (1965), by normative expectations, using the phrase 'expected outcome' would encompass the implications of other labels (input, referent outcome, and deserved outcomes). Finally, according to Fairness Theory (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998), this framework can be generalised to all facets of organisational justice. Similarly, Cropanzano and Ambrose (2001) argue that since an event can be seen as an outcome and a process in different situations (discussed in Sections 3.4 and 3.5), the rules of distributive justice (need, equity, and equality) are applicable to procedures. Thereby the comparison would be between actual outcomes, procedures and treatments to expected (counterfactuals according to Fairness Theory) outcomes procedures and treatments (see Figure 3.2).

This proposed combination resembles what had been discussed previously in Tyler's (1988) study. By separately comparing outcomes and treatments to their standards, Tyler (1988) created two indices of consistency. These indices were used to assess five types of consistency: with expectancies, across people, across time, with prior expectation and in relationship to recent experience of acquaintances (family, neighbours and friends). These types of consistency appear to overlap with concepts of 'referent outcome' and 'counterfactuals'.

Figure 3.1 Components of the fairness equation

If: $\frac{\text{Actual outcomes}}{\text{Input}}$

=

$\frac{\text{Actual outcomes}}{\text{Referent outcomes}}$

=

$\frac{\text{Actual outcomes}}{\text{Deserved outcomes}}$

Then: Input

=

Referent outcomes

=

Deserved outcomes

Figure 3.2 The fairness equation

Fairness =

$\frac{\text{Actual Outcomes, Procedures and Treatments}}{\text{Expected Outcomes, Procedures and Treatments}}$

Further, according to this combination, the ‘perceived likelihood of amelioration’ (proposed by Referent Cognition Theory) is seen as a factor that influences the assessment of ‘actual outcome’, and consequently, the fairness judgment. Similarly, ‘level of justification’ (proposed by Referent Cognition Theory) is seen as a factor that influences the assessment of the expected outcome, procedures, and treatments; hence, it affects fairness judgment.

Cropanzano *et al.* (2001) argue that when people make justice judgments, they think of either the events (event paradigm) or the social entities, i.e., the perpetrators (social entity paradigm). It is important to state that this proposed reconciliation alludes to the ‘event paradigm’ as explained by Cropanzano *et al.* (2001).

3.5.3 The consequences of justice judgments

Researchers have examined several outcomes of organisational justice judgment, for example, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and work performance (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001). Further, research has shown that distributive justice and procedural justice are highly correlated

(e.g., Daly (1995) reported $r = .45$; $p = .001$), which may imply that distributive justice and procedural justice affect each other⁴ (Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2001). Van den Bos *et al.* (1997) found that fairness judgement depends more on what comes first than on what comes next, whether it was distributive justice or procedural justice. This result indicates that both procedural justice and distributive justice can be consequences to each other in different situations. Consistently, Folger *et al.* (1979) propose two opposite scenarios for the effect of procedural justice on the assessment of distributive justice: the fair-process effect and the frustration effect. The fair-process effect implies that perceiving high procedural justice reflects that the outcomes are the results of fair processes, which affects the assessment of the outcome and, thereby, will lead to high distributive justice judgement. In contrast, the frustration effect implies that perceiving high procedural justice increases outcomes expectancy, which affects the assessment of the outcome and, thereby, will lead to low distributive justice judgement.

One way to analyse the consequences of justice judgement is what is called 'the main effect approach'. Given that distributive justice and procedural justice are correlated, the main effect approach, or two-factor model, is concerned with the unshared variance (Sweeney and McFarlin, 1993). By examining the predictive roles of procedural justice and distributive justice of organisational and personal outcomes, McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) argued and found that procedural justice has a stronger effect on organisational outcome (e.g., organisational commitment) while distributive justice has a stronger effect on personal outcomes (e.g., pay satisfaction). McFarlin and Sweeney (1992, p. 627) claim that these results exemplify what they called 'the main effect approach'. Although Mansour-Cole and Scott (1998) found that post-layoff (24 months later), affective organisational commitment was significantly related to procedural justice and distributive justice ($p = .01, .05$ respectively), only the regression coefficient of procedural justice was significant when both (procedural justice and distributive justice) were entered

⁴ Some reported high correlations were interpreted differently (see Section 3.4).

in a multiple regression after controlling for the pre-layoff affective organisational commitment.

To explore the relationship between organisational justice and workers' reactions, the same argument was stated by Sweeney and McFarlin (1993, pp. 24-25) in presenting 'two-factor model', which was prevailing over three other tested models ('procedural primacy model', 'additive model', 'distributive halo model'). The procedural primacy model implies that perception of procedural justice influences perception of distributive justice, which affects both personal and organisational levels of evaluation, while the additive model suggests that perceptions of distributive justice and procedural justice independently affect individuals' reactions (Sweeney and McFarlin, 1993). Finally, according to the distributive halo model, perception of distributive justice drives perceptions of procedural justice (Sweeney and McFarlin, 1993).

To test the hypothesis that independently of the satisfaction and fairness of the outcome procedures to allocate outcomes taken by leaders would affect the evaluation of the leaders, Tylor and Caine (1981) conducted two experiments and two surveys. Based on the surveys, Tylor and Caine (1981, p. 642) concluded that 'in natural sittings, however, individuals focus on procedures rather than outcomes in forming their evaluations of leaders'. These evaluations are deemed to be in the organisational level. Manifesting a justification main effect, Folger and Martin (1986) interpreted their experimental results as a support to Tylor and Caine's (1981) conclusion. Presenting the same theme, Greenberg (1990) used different labels of 'system satisfaction' instead of 'organisational level' and 'outcome satisfaction' instead of 'personal level'. Another example, by using a wide range of measures of global satisfaction, Folger and Greenberg (1985) found that more of the variance in responses to these measures was attributable to procedural concerns than distributive concerns.

An explanation for these results is that unlike distributive justice judgements that pertain to specific situations or outcomes, both procedural justice judgements and attitudes towards organisations have a level of generality with respect to time (Lind and Tyler, 1988). The main effect approach may imply

that the significance that the receiver assigns to each facet of organisational justice may differ across situations, i.e., the receiver might be concerned with content more than the process or vice versa.

In addition, theories and models, discussed in Section 3.5.2, proposed several consequences for justice judgments. For example, according to the egoistic relative deprivation model, Crosby (1976) proposes four anticipated results for relative deprivation two of them are internal (stress symptoms and self improvement) and two are external (violence against society and constructive change of society). 'Stress symptoms' and 'violence against society' are destructive, while the other two are constructive. The internal results are for intro-punitive individuals and the external are for the extrapunitive ones (Crosby, 1976). Unless there were no real opportunities for effective changes, if an individual has a high level of personal control (internal locus of control), the constructive results will appear (Crosby, 1976). Otherwise, if there were no real opportunities for effective changes and/or an individual has a low level of personal control, the destructive results will appear (Crosby, 1976).

3.5.4 Factors affecting organisational justice judgement

Theories and models, discussed in Section 3.5.2, proposed several factors that can influence justice judgement. According to the egoistic relative deprivation model, among personal determinants, personality traits like locus of control and need for achievement are postulated to influence the feeling of being relatively deprived. For example, Crosby (1976) argues that people with low need for achievement would have either higher or lower levels of expectations for the feasibility to have *X* (an attribute or opportunity) compared to people with high need for achievement, which forms a curve-linear relationship. More on the personal determinants, if a person possessed *X* in the past, then the preconditions of relative deprivation would be influenced by how long s/he possessed *X*, how recently s/he lost *X*, how close to attaining *X* s/he was, the rate of acquiring *X*, and the continued visibility of *X* (Crosby, 1976). The other item of the personal determinant is the centrality of *X* to the biological survival of an individual; as Crosby (1976) argues that the more central it is, the more likely it is that the feelings of relative deprivation will

appear. Moving to the first set of environmental determinants, there are three assumptions that make up the base of the argument about the effect of immediate environment on the preconditions (Crosby, 1976). Firstly, people keep on reassessing themselves through a comparison with other people in their immediate environment (Crosby, 1976). Secondly, within each group, people could be sub-grouped into those who possess and those who do not (Crosby, 1976). Thirdly, the feelings of the subgroup of people who do not possess could vary according to the attributes of the other subgroup, and how those who possess deal with those who do not possess (Crosby, 1976). Therefore, according to Crosby (1976), the subgroup of those who possess would affect the preconditions of an individual who does not possess according to their:

- Proportion
- Contact with him/her
- Power
- Attractiveness
- Similarity with that individual
- Possession duration

Moving on to the other set of the environmental determinants, societal dictates, Crosby (1976) argues that the society dictates on each of its members:

- Which group/s s/he belongs to
- What his/her group/s' members ought to possess
- That some members possess *X*
- The value of *X*
- That *X* is obtainable

Above all, if society were concerned with justice issues, this would enhance the proneness to relative deprivation, especially when people habitually compare themselves to others (Crosby, 1976).

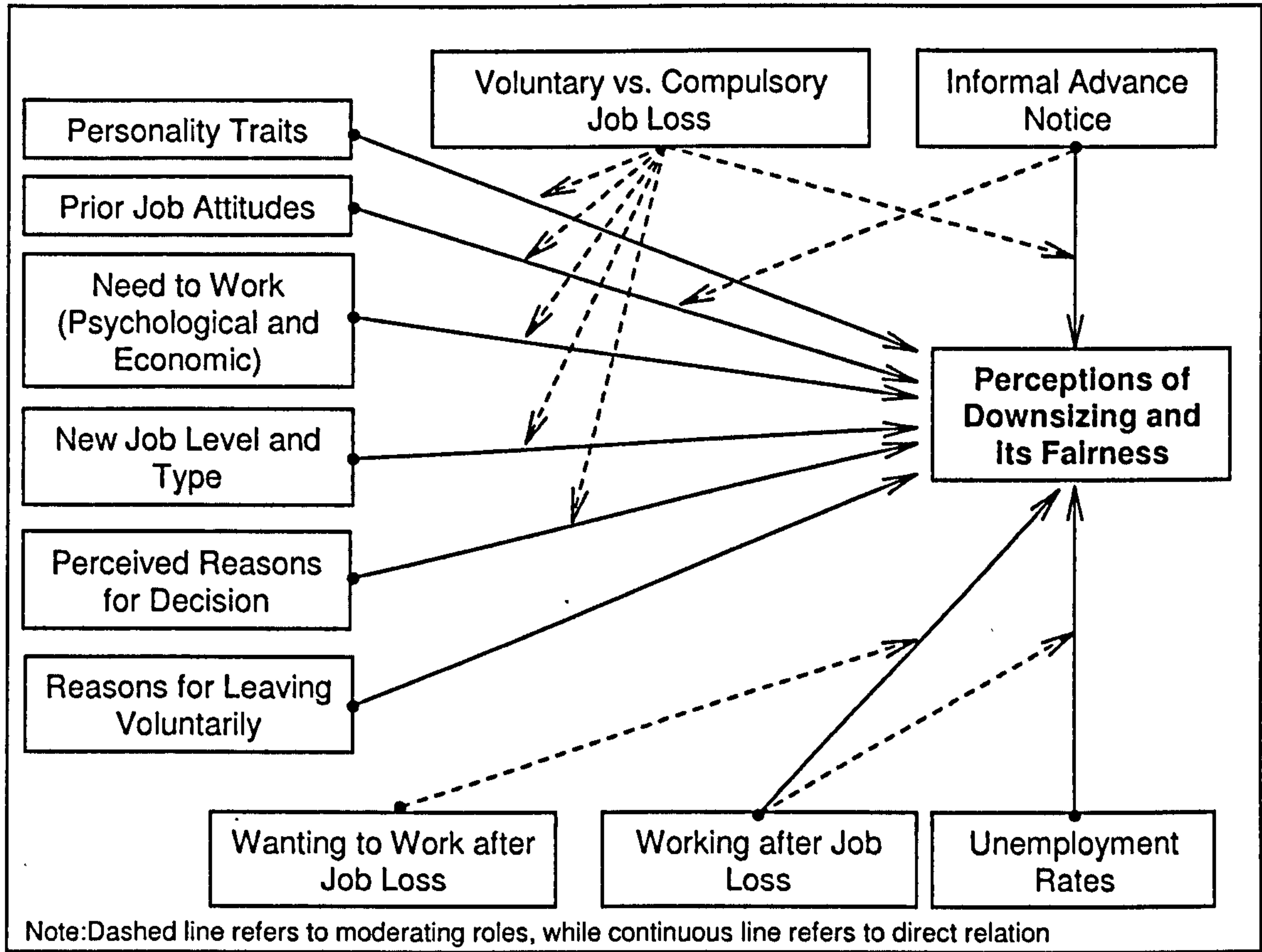
On the other hand, arguing that fairness of procedures is one way to assure that co-operation provides more gain in the long-run, Lind and Tyler (1988, p.

226) list, in descending order of their influence, four factors that affect procedural justice judgement:

- The degree to which the procedure is favourable to (enhances the interest of) the perceiver
- The amount of control over outcomes available to the perceiver
- The degree of distributive justice of the outcomes received via the procedure
- The degree of consistency in applying the procedure across people

By exploring 190 studies for their meta-analysis study, Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) grouped the factors that influence justice judgment in three categories: organisational outcome, organisational practices, and perceiver characteristics. The first category involves the actual outcome that has been received, which was discussed in the previous chapter within the context of downsizing outcomes for leavers. The second category includes items like process and decision control, advance notification, reasons for the decision of allocation. The third category subsumes demographics and personality traits. A fourth category is proposed, which pertains to prior job attitudes, but, it can be argued that prior job attitudes have resulted from prior organisational practices and/or organisational outcomes. The potential effects of these categories, including the first category that was plotted in Figure 2.5, are presented in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3 Factors influencing the judgement of organisational justice



The remaining sections of this chapter are structured according to these categories, except the first category that was discussed in the previous chapter. Further, several correlations for each factor with other factors are presented in these sections. These correlations will be used later in Chapter 7 when considering the criterion-related validity of these factors.

(I) Characteristics of the perceiver

(A) Demographics

One way that demographics (e.g., gender, number of dependents, and participation in family income) can influence justice judgement is through differences in economic and psychological need to work and, consequently, the effect of job loss and unemployment, which were discussed in the previous chapter. However, some studies reported no differences in justice assessment that can be attributable to demographics. For example, regarding procedural preferences, there were no significant differences in the

importance of the non-control issues (neutrality, trust, and standing) in defining fair procedures that are attributable to differences in gender, income, education, age, and liberalism. Nevertheless, members of minority groups considered their social standing more important than did white group members (Tyler, 1989). As demographics are more complex than one theoretical perspective can explain (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001), in this study gender and age are regarded as control variables.

(B) Personality traits

Although there is empirical evidence that can indicate the potential effect of personality traits on the perception of organisational justice, this potential effect was absent in most of the fairness theories and models. The one exception was 'egoistic relative deprivation' model, which proposed that 'internal locus of control' can have an effect on the feeling of relative deprivation. This effect is discussed later in the relevant section. The other findings that support the potential effect of personality traits on the perception of organisational justice are discussed in the following subsections.

(a) Negative and positive affectivities

Although negative affectivity was the personality trait most researched within the organisational justice literature, very few of these studies examined its direct influence on justice assessment, and with fewer that studied positive affectivity (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001). Negative and positive affectivities are researched in this study as two separate variables; however, they are presented in one section for their inter-relation. As the bulk of the 'research has concentrated almost exclusively on negative affect' (Duffy *et al.*, 1998, p. 950), this concentration is reflected in this section.

Negative affectivity, which is used interchangeably with neuroticism (Brennan and Skarlicki, 2004; George, 1992; Parkes, 1990), is viewed as 'a mood dispositional dimension', which 'reflects pervasive individual differences in negative emotionality and self-concept' (Watson and Clark, 1984, p. 465) that are 'characterized by a disposition to experience aversive emotional states' (Levin and Stokes, 1989, p. 752). In contrast, positive affectivity, which is

used interchangeably with extraversion (Duffy *et al.* (1998); George, 1992), is viewed as 'a trait reflecting positive feelings about oneself and one's life' (Watson *et al.*, 1987, p.141) and it mirrors 'a state of pleasurable arousal, activation or engagement' (Watson *et al.*, 1987, p.150).

Watson and Clark (1984, p. 465) state that

Extensive data indicate that high-negative affectivity individuals are more likely to experience discomfort at all times and across situations, even in the absence of overt stress.

Thus, 'they tend to be distressed, agitated, pessimistic, and dissatisfied' (Levin and Stokes, 1989, p. 752). In contrast, regarding the other trait, positive affectivity 'represents the degree to which one feels excited and enthusiastic, full of life and energy', which is best captured by mood descriptors such as '*excited, enthusiastic, delighted, active, energetic, alert and determined* [*italics in the original*]' (Watson *et al.*, 1987, p. 150).

Several studies indicated the influences of negative affectivity and positive affectivity on justice judgment. For example, negative affectivity had negative correlations with procedural justice (Skarlicki *et al.*, 1999) and equity perception (Hochwarter *et al.*, 1995), and a non-significant positive correlation with distributive justice ($r=.03$) and interactional justice ($r= .10$). Moreover, Wanberg *et al.* (1999) found that negative affectivity had a significant ($p=.05$) negative correlation with perceived layoff fairness and a significant ($p=.05$) positive correlation with desire to sue past employer over layoff. On the other hand, positive affectivity had a positive correlation with pay satisfaction and perceiving pay equity (Chiu, 1999). Reporting a meta-analysis study, Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) found that negative affectivity was related to distributive justice (weighted mean $r= -.10$), procedural justice (weighted mean $r= -.21$), and interactional justice (weighted mean $r= -.26$).

Further, arguing that personality can predict the value of voice, Avery (2003) studied several personality traits including neuroticism, extraversion and locus of control. He found that only extraversion and self-efficacy significantly predicted the value of voice. The effect of voice on procedural justice was the

rationale for Avery's (2003) laboratory study. Avery (2003) hypothesized that people high in neuroticism (high negative affectivity) would value voice to express their discontent, but found no support. On the other hand, Avery (2003) hypothesized and found that since extraverts (high positive affectivity) are typically bold, talkative and assertive, they are expected to value voice to have opportunities for both expression and influence.

To understand the way these affectivities can influence justice judgment, two questions are considered. The first question is whether negative affectivity and positive affectivity are separate constructs or two poles of one continuum. Although the concepts of negative affectivity and positive affectivity 'have now been introduced into the study of organizations' (Agho *et al.*, 1992, p. 186), their literature implies two perspectives regarding their inter-relation. Researching the moderating role of affectivity may go back to 1952, where Weitz (1952) proposed to investigate job satisfaction in the light of satisfaction with everyday life (general satisfaction). Nonetheless, in that study, negative affectivity and positive affectivity were regarded as opposite poles of one construct rather than two different constructs, and were measured by a single measure, where the high score reflects high negative affectivity, and the low score reflects High-positive affectivity (or vice versa according to score coding). Years later, probably not the first to do that, Watson *et al.* (1987) presented a two-factor model that included positive affectivity in addition to negative affectivity.

There are four reasons to adopt the second perspective (i.e. consider positive affectivity and negative affectivity as two different constructs) in this study. The first reason is that by using different measures, researchers frequently reported a negative correlation (e.g., Mak and Mueller, 2000; Shaw *et al.*, 2000; Valle *et al.*, 2002; Watson *et al.*, 1988; Williams *et al.*, 2000 – used the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule – PANAS, Agho *et al.*, 1992; Williams *et al.*, 2003 – used different scales), occasionally non-significant one (e.g., Cropanzano *et al.*, 1993; Johnson and Johnson, 2000; McCrae and Costa, 1991), between positive affectivity and negative affectivity. However, Watson *et al.* (1988) consider the relatively low negative correlation ($R^2 = 1\%$ to 5% , which represents the shared proportion of the variance of the two scales)

between positive affectivity and negative affectivity as an indication of the quasi-independence, hence, Watson *et al.* (1987) advise organisational researchers to measure both factors. The second reason is that positive affectivity and negative affectivity 'have quite different correlates' (Watson *et al.*, 1987, p. 151). Besides,

NA [negative affectivity] is unrelated to an individual's experience of the positive emotions; that is, high-NA level does not necessarily imply a lack of joy, excitement, or enthusiasm (Watson and Clark, 1984, p. 465),

and unlike negative affectivity, 'PA [positive affectivity] is completely unrelated to stress and physical complaints' (Watson *et al.*, 1987, p. 151). The third reason is that negative affectivity as a synonym or proxy of neuroticism is the opposite of stability, hence it has two poles, neurotic and stable, while positive affectivity as a synonym or proxy of extraversion is the opposite of introversion, hence it has extravert and introvert for high and low positive affectivity respectively (Larsen and Ketelaar, 1991). Finally, in some cases adopting different perspectives brought about similar results. For example, although as an intended departure from considering negative affectivity and positive affectivity as two distinct constructs, Judge (1993) adopted Weitz's (1952) scale and perspective, while Hochwarter *et al.* (1995) adopted the other perspective and used different affectivity measure, their results were consistent in terms of moderating the relationship between job satisfaction and voluntary turnover. However, this was not the case all the time -for example, Johnson and Johnson (2000) found that perceived over-qualification measured by 'no-growth-opportunities' was associated with low-positive affectivity, and not with high-negative affectivity. These findings may demonstrate the distinction between positive affectivity and negative affectivity or low-positive affectivity and high-negative affectivity and vice versa.

The second question to be considered is the possible patterns of the direct and moderating effect of negative affectivity and positive affectivity. To explore positive affectivity and negative affectivity as personal differences within organisational research, probably among the main themes to be considered are their direct (predicting), indirect (moderating) or direct-indirect combination (mediating) effects. For example, negative affectivity is expected

to influence the individual's (a) perception of organisational aspects (e.g. job satisfaction), and (b) behaviour as a reaction to his/her perception (e.g. voluntary turnover). The first indicates the direct effect, while the second may imply a moderating or mediating role in the relation between the perception and the reaction to it. However, although most of the research about negative affectivity and positive affectivity is concerned with the direct and moderating effects, the mediating effect is not overlooked (see for example Chiu, 1999; Cropanzano *et al.* 1993). Nevertheless, in these examples, negative affectivity and positive affectivity effects were mediated rather than mediators.

By reviewing the negative affectivity and positive affectivity literature, it can be seen that in arguing and presenting evidence regarding the direct influence, people with high-negative affectivity are expected to perceive organisational aspects more negatively than people with low-negative affectivity and vice versa for positive affectivity. Nevertheless, there are two different hypothesized patterns regarding the moderating effect (Brennan and Skarlicki's, 2004) or how they would react towards their perceptions (see Table 3.4). These two patterns will be explained by considering negative affectivity first. On the first hand, some writers (e.g. Cropanzano *et al.*, 1993; Skarlicki *et al.*, 1999) argued and found that the more negative the perception is, the stronger/more negative⁵ the reaction will be. In other words, persons with high-negative affectivity would perceive things more negatively as well as react to their perceptions than low-negative affectivity persons (which is labelled pattern 1). For example, Skarlicki *et al.* (1999) found a greater relationship between fairness perception and organisational retaliatory behaviour for high-negative affectivity than low-negative affectivity. Another example, Parkes (1990) reported that negative affectivity followed the first pattern in moderating the relationship between perceiving work demand and mental health. Further example, negative affectivity followed pattern 1 in moderating the relationship between job security and vocational strain (Mak and Mueller, 2000).

⁵ The expression 'more negative reaction' in this context means a stronger undesirable reaction.

On the other hand, other writers (e.g. Hochwarter *et al.*, 1995; Weitz, 1952) argued that because this negative perception is what they are used to experience, those with high-negative affectivity are expected to react less negatively to their perceptions (which is labelled pattern 2). For example, although Brennan and Skarlicki (2004) focused on 'angry hostility' as one facet of negative affectivity unlike Hochwarter *et al.* (1995) who assessed the global measure of negative affectivity, their findings support this argument, where people with high-negative affectivity had less negative reaction in term of turnover intention than did those with low-negative affectivity. Another example, Johnson and Johnson (2000) found that negative affectivity follows pattern 2 in moderating the relationship between perceived over-qualification measured by 'no-growth-opportunities' and job satisfaction.

Bearing in mind the two perspectives to understand dispositional affectivity explained above, it could be argued that looking through the first perspective (i.e., positive affectivity and negative affectivity are opposite poles of the same construct), the perception and reaction negativity for positive affectivity would be a mirror image of the negative affectivity proposed reaction patterns as explained in Table 3.4. Specifically, low-positive affectivity acts like high-negative affectivity and so on, and hence the same argument could be applied. Alternatively, the second perspective may not bring about any further reaction pattern, especially with the assumption that there are differences between high-positive affectivity's and low-positive affectivity's reactions (i.e. there is a moderating role). Nonetheless, the positive affectivity literature provides support for both patterns with different arguments. For example, Shaw *et al.* (2000) reported a significant ($p = .01$) positive correlation between positive affectivity and job satisfaction (which supports the perception part in Table 3.4). However, after controlling for negative affectivity, the relationship between Job satisfaction and intention to quit was more strongly negative for high-positive affectivity than low-positive affectivity (which supports reaction pattern 2). In the light of this example, it could be argued that because high-positive affectivity are more proactive (Judge (1993); Shaw *et al.*, 2000) and tend to see the grass greener elsewhere (Duffy *et al.*, 1998), while low-positive affectivity are likely to be listless (Cropanzano *et al.*, 1993), the

second pattern is expected to take place. In addition, as a reversed version of the argument that supports pattern 2 for negative affectivity, a high-positive affectivity individual who reports the same level of dissatisfaction like low-positive affectivity is actually experiencing higher dissatisfaction compared to what s/he is used to experience (Judge, 1993).

Table 3.4 Moderating roles of negative affectivity and positive affectivity

	Negativity/ Undesirability	
	High-negative affectivity /Low positive affectivity	Low-negative affectivity /High positive affectivity
Perception/ Direct effect	Higher	Lower
Reaction/ Indirect effect/ moderating role (pattern 1)	Higher	Lower
Reaction/ Indirect effect/ moderating role (pattern 2)	Lower	Higher

Further, to see a ‘more complete picture of the role of the individual affectivity’, Duffy *et al.* (1998, p. 951) suggest to research situational variables (e.g., tenure) in addition to job attitude (e.g., job satisfaction). By researching 3-way interaction combining positive affectivity, job satisfaction and tenure, Duffy *et al.* (1998) reported the two patterns to exist, where the moderating role of positive affectivity regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and each of job-seeking behaviour, physical health complaint and counterproductive behaviour followed the first pattern for the low tenure, individuals and pattern 2 for the high tenure individuals. In contrast, other researchers (e.g. Johnson and Johnson, 2000; Mak and Mueller, 2000) failed to find support for a moderating role of positive affectivity. Finally, where positive affectivity was the moderator, the interaction of positive affectivity and negative affectivity was found to follow the first pattern in term of predicting organisational politics perceptions (Valle *et al.*, 2002).

Positive affectivity and negative affectivity had opposite correlations with other variables (i.e., positive affectivity would have a positive correlation if negative affectivity had a negative one and vice versa), this might be considered as a support to the perception part in Table 3.4. For example, many researchers reported negative correlations between negative affectivity and job satisfaction (e.g., Chu *et al.*, 2003; Cropanzano *et al.*, 1993; Johnson and Johnson, 2000;

Levin and Stokes, 1989; Shaw *et al.*, 2000), which were non-significant in some reports (e.g., Spector and O'Connell, 1994). For example, as an independent predictor of job satisfaction measured by two different scales, negative affectivity made significant contributions, 3.9% and 4.5% (Levin and Stokes, 1989). In contrast, researchers (e.g. Chiu, 1999; Chu *et al.*, 2003; Cropanzano *et al.*, 1993; Duffy *et al.*, 1998; Johnson and Johnson, 2000; Shaw *et al.*, 2000) reported significant positive correlations between positive affectivity and job satisfaction. For example, Cropanzano *et al.* (1993) found a significant positive correlation ($r = .47$ and $p = .01$) between positive affectivity and global job satisfaction.

In similar results, negative affectivity was negatively correlated with organisational commitment, affective organisational commitment (Cropanzano *et al.*, 1993) and future organisational commitment (Wanberg *et al.*, 1999), while positive affectivity was positively correlated with organisational commitment and affective organisational commitment (Cropanzano *et al.*, 1993). However, non-significant correlations, but in the opposite direction (positively with negative affectivity and negatively with positive affectivity) were found regarding continuance organisational commitment with (Cropanzano *et al.*, 1993).

The variable 'turnover intentions' was negatively correlated, occasionally non-significantly (e.g., Shaw *et al.*, 2000) with positive affectivity (e.g., Cropanzano *et al.*, 1993) and positively with negative affectivity (e.g., Cropanzano *et al.*, 1993; Hochwarter *et al.*, 1995; Shaw *et al.*, 2000). Further, regarding correlation with job insecurity, Mak and Mueller (2000) reported a positive correlation with negative affectivity and negative non-significant correlation with positive affectivity. Finally, research frequently found that 'age' has non-significant correlation with negative affectivity (e.g., Hochwarter *et al.*, 1995; Parkes, 1990; Shaw *et al.*, 2000) and positive affectivity (e.g., Duffy *et al.*, 1998; Shaw *et al.*, 2000).

(b) Locus of control

Locus of control was one of the personality traits that Crosby (1976) proposed to have an influence on the feeling of relative deprivation. Specifically, if a

person usually blames his/her fate or bad luck for what is happening to him/her, s/he will likely experience a small sense of responsibility for not possessing *X*, and hence feels resentment for relative deprivation (Crosby, 1976). On the other hand, if s/he usually blames him/herself, s/he will likely experience a great sense of responsibility for not possessing *X*, and subsequently does not feel resentment for relative deprivation (Crosby, 1976). Nonetheless, Avery (2003) hypothesized that since individuals with high internal locus of control prefer a participative management style that allows them to influence the decision-making process, they would value voice to express their discontent, but found no support. On the other hand, Sweeney *et al.* (1991) found the locus of control moderated the relationship between perceived influence and procedural justice, where this relation was stronger for internals than for externals. To understand this proposal, the construct of locus of control is explored.

The way a person perceives a reward and reacts to it is influenced by his/her perception of the degree to which this reward is contingent upon his/her own behaviour or attribute, versus his/her perception that this reward is controlled by forces outside of him/herself (Rotter, 1966). The perception that a reward is contingent upon oneself, which is labeled internal locus of control, is not necessarily 'be all or none but can vary in degree' (Rotter, 1966, p. 1). The same argument applies to the perception that a reward is controlled by forces outside of oneself, which might be chance, luck, fate, or powerful others (Rotter, 1966). Thereby, locus of control (locus of control) 'refers to a person's expectations with regard to whether reinforcement is controlled internally (i.e., by oneself) or externally (i.e., by fate, chance, luck, or powerful others)' (Jolley and Spielberger, 1973, p. 443).

Although there is consent about the duality of locus of control, internal versus external, however, there is a debate about whether they represent the two extremes of the same continuum or different continua. On the one hand, although Rotter (1966) acknowledged that the beliefs of external locus of control pertain to chance or powerful others, he reviewed several tests of individual differences in a generalized belief in locus of control, and presented one scale for that construct, which entails adopting the one-dimensional

perspective. On the other hand, although Reid and Ware (1973) acknowledged that Rotter's (1966) scale maintained respectable reliability and validity, they suspected that such scale is dealing with a multidimensional construct. Consequently, Reid and Ware (1974) identified three dimensions for locus of control: self-control, fatalism and social-system control. Likewise, since who believe that the world is unordered (chance locus of control) behave differently from those who believe that the world is controlled by powerful others, Levenson (1974) identified the three dimensions of locus of control as: internal, chance, and powerful others, which was confirmed elsewhere (e.g., Walkey, 1979). Consequently, Levenson (1974) developed three scales for the three dimensions of locus of control.

Rotter's claim of locus of control stability found some support, but it was considered inconsistent with the evidence 'that clinical intervention can alter people's control orientation' (Little, 1979, p. 127). For example, using Rotter's scale, Little (1979, p. 128) conducted a longitudinal study and found that less than 50% of the variation in any subsequent locus of control scores 'was explained by a variation in a previous one', reflecting some instability over the periods of 6 and 18 months.

Although locus of control correlates with work-linked variables (e.g., job satisfaction), Spector (1988) hypothesized and found that these correlations will be larger if a work-specific locus of control scale was used. However, this specific scale would diminish the generality of the locus of control beliefs, and, consequently, they are less likely to be regarded as personality traits.

Further, adopting the one-dimension perspective, internal locus of control was equated with self-efficacy Stolte (1983). Subjects with high generalized self-efficacy, i.e. high internal locus of control, judged more accurately their objective power position in term of negotiation, and achieved more outcomes (Stolte, 1983). In contrast, assessing internal locus of control and self-efficacy by two different measures, Avery (2003) found that although they positively correlate ($r = .20$, $p = .05$), self-efficacy significantly predicted the value of voice, unlike internal locus of control.

Research provided several findings pertaining to locus of control correlations. For example, Spector and O'Connell (1994) reported a significant positive correlation between external locus of control (high scores reflect externality) and negative affectivity, and a significant negative one with job satisfaction. In contrast, although Avery (2003) reported a significant positive correlation for locus of control (high scores reflect externality) with extraversion (positive affectivity), he reported a non-significant positive correlation with neuroticism (negative affectivity). In addition, Payne and Hartley (1987) reported a significant positive correlation between external locus of control and employment commitment. However, they considered that there is little reason to expect that people with high external locus of control to be highly committed to work.

Levenson's (1974) approach was adopted in this study for the following reasons. First, different theories implied different roles for each dimension of locus of control (Reid and Ware, 1974), which found support elsewhere (e.g., James and Wright, 1993). This would imply that each dimension of locus of control can differently influence leavers' perception of downsizing and its fairness. Second, adopting Levenson's (1974) approach enables capturing the general belief of locus of control rather than work locus of control. Therefore, Levenson's (1974) approach is more appropriate for this study.

(II) Prior job attitudes

(A) Prior organisational commitment

According to the group-value model (Section 3.5.2), people's long-term commitment and loyalty to their groups depends upon the fairness of group authority (Tyler, 1989). Hence, individuals with high organisational commitment would expect higher procedural justice than those with low organisational commitment; otherwise, they would alter their attitudes. Consequently, employees with high prior organisational commitment are more likely to judge what they receive from their organisation to be fair. However, the other influence direction is also possible, i.e., the perceived fairness might influence their organisational commitment. Nonetheless, this study is

concerned with the effect of leavers' prior organisational commitment on their perceived justice judgement, this means that the influence of leavers' perceived procedural justice is not detected especially because they left the organisation. As noted in Section 3.5.2, the reciprocal influence between perceived procedural justice and attitudes towards the organisation may not exist in the case of job loss, as leavers are no longer members of the organisation.

The empirical results regarding the influence of prior organisational commitment on organisational justice appear to contradict each other. Pertaining to layoff leavers, Wanberg *et al.* (1999) argue that these two hypotheses are possible. However, they reported a significant negative correlation between prior organisational commitment and perceived layoff fairness in time1 and time2 (3 months later). On the other hand, reporting two studies, Brockner *et al.* (1992a) found a non-significant negative correlation between prior organisational commitment and procedural justice in study1 that pertained to layoff leavers, whereas, in study2 that pertained to citizens dealing with authorities, they found a significant negative correlation between prior organisational commitment and procedural justice. Similarly, Mansour-Cole and Scott (1998) found that prior affective commitment (15 months before layoff) has a positive correlation with procedural justice (one month after layoff).

Cook and Wall (1980, p. 40) argue that the concept of organisational commitment 'refers to a person's affective reactions to characteristics of his employing organization'. It

is viewed as a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one's role in relation to goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth.
(Buchanan II, 1974, p. 533)

Thereby, it may 'be defined as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization' (Steers, 1977, p.46).

Buchanan II (1974, p. 533) distinguishes three components of organisational commitment:

- Identification: adopting organizational goals and values as one's own
- Involvement: being psychologically immersed in the activities of one's role within the work
- Loyalty: being attached to, and to feel affection for, the organization manifested by a wish to stay.

The first and third components resemble those proposed by Porter *et al.* (1974). However, the third component provided an alternative to the second component that entails a high level of effort within the work but on behalf of the organization, i.e. for the sake of the organization as well as for one's satisfaction, by which the overlap between organisational commitment and employment commitment is prevented (Cook and Wall, 1980).

This three-dimensionality of the concept organisational commitment was explored by Bar-Hayim and Berman (1992) among industrial workers in Israel, where a distinction between passive (loyalty) and active (identification and involvement) organisational commitment was made. Another, but more comprehensive, three-component organisational commitment model was proposed by Allen and Meyer (1990), who reported two studies that were conducted to test their model that subsumes:

- Affective commitment: refers to identifying with, involving in, and enjoying membership, in the organisation.
- Continuance commitment: is based on the cost of leaving the organisation.
- Normative commitment: refers to feeling obliged to remain with the organisation.

Allen and Meyer (1990) argue that affective commitment, as represented by the work of Porter and his colleagues (e.g., Porter *et al.*, 1974), reflects why employees want to remain in the organisation, whereas the continuance and normative commitment reflect, respectively, why employees need to, and feel that they ought to, remain in the organisation. They found that although the affective and normative components are empirically distinguishable, they

appear to be related, whereas the affective and continuance components are distinguishable and have different correlates (Allen and Meyer, 1990).

By reviewing the literature of organisational commitment, Swailes (2002) summarises the four bases of organisational commitment as: attitudinal or affective, continuance, normative, and behavioural commitment. The first three bases resemble those tested by Allen and Meyer (1990), while the fourth one, which is less dominant in the literature, results from past behaviours (Salancik, 1982).

In this study, the prior organisational commitment is captured by the three dimensions of Porter *et al.* (1974). Since Allen and Meyer (1990) argue that affective commitment is best represented by the work of Porter and his colleagues, therefore, for comparing the results, it can be equated with prior affective commitment. Nonetheless, it will be referred to henceforth by prior organisational commitment.

(B) Prior job satisfaction

The organisational justice literature presented evidence for the effect of perceived fairness on job satisfaction (see Section 3.5.3). For example, perceived fairness was found to significantly influence survivors' job satisfaction, which, in turn, significantly influences their organisational commitment (Davy *et al.*, 1991). Nonetheless, according to the main effect approach (Section 3.5.4), they (prior organisational commitment and prior job satisfaction) may affect each of the organisational justice facets (distributive justice and procedural justice) by different strengths.

According to the group-value model (Section 3.5.2), the influence of prior job satisfaction on fairness judgement is expected to resemble the influence of prior organisational commitment, especially that they have a high positive correlation (Davy *et al.*, 1991). As explained in Section 3.5.3, the organisational commitment and perceived procedural justice have level of generality in respect of time (Lind and Tyler, 1988). Therefore, the resemblance between job satisfaction and organisational commitment can be more obvious when the former is captured as global job satisfaction

(explained in this section) rather than satisfaction with a specific job outcome (e.g., pay satisfaction).

Further, there are other possible ways for prior job satisfaction to affect justice judgment, especially in the contexts of downsizing and pertaining to leavers. For example, if a voluntary leaver had low prior job satisfaction, s/he is expected to be happier to leave compared to who had high prior job satisfaction. On the other hand, if a compulsory leaver had high prior job satisfaction, s/he is expected to be more discontented compared to a voluntary leaver with high prior job satisfaction. Probably there are few studies, if there are at all, that addressed this plausible effect.

To address this effect, the concept of job satisfaction is explored. Job satisfaction, the extent to which one likes one's job (Agho *et al.*, 1992) is defined as 'a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences' (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). Although this definition is a classical reference for the meaning of job satisfaction (Clark, 1996), there are two main types of instrument to measure this construct: those concerned with global job satisfaction, and those concerned with satisfaction with several facets of the job (Taber and Alliger, 1995). Further, Taber and Alliger (1995) researched a third type that is concerned with a task-level of job satisfaction.

Although different schools of thought argue that satisfaction depends on the individual's expectation, needs and values (Clark, 1996), since Weitz (1952) suggested studying job satisfaction in the light of general satisfaction, there was growing evidence that job satisfaction has a dispositional aspect (Ilie and Judge, 2003). For example, Staw *et al.* (1986, p. 437) found that affective disposition, assessed at childhood, 'significantly predicted job attitudes over a time span of nearly fifty years'. Further, Ilie and Judge (2003. 750) found that positive affectivity and negative affectivity 'mediate about 45% of the genetic influences on job satisfaction'.

The term 'global job satisfaction' is used to refer to a general attitude about the job as a whole, which may indicate different psychological processes than facet-level job satisfaction does (Taber and Alliger, 1995). In this study, prior

job satisfaction is captured by an adapted short form of global satisfaction measure constructed by Brayfield and Rothe (1951).

As discussed earlier, it can be argued that prior job attitudes have resulted from prior organisational practices. It can be argued that although organisational practices associated with job loss may not influence leavers' prior job attitudes (as they left the organisation), such practices can moderate the effect of prior job attitudes. This plausible moderating role is discussed in the next sections.

(III) Organisational practices

(A) Informal advance notice

In a downsizing context, e.g. plant closing, a formal advance notice of the job loss is mandatory in some cases and, consequently, reflects legal justice. Nonetheless, the fairness of advance notice is a subjective assessment that may vary from one person to another. The formal advance notice is been used frequently in assessing procedural justice (e.g., Burke, 1986; Brockner *et al.*, 1994; Cropanzano and Konovsky, 1995; Posthuma and Campion, 2005; Spreitzer and Mishra, 2002). Regarding it as an element of procedural justice, Brockner *et al.* (1994, p. 398) define advance notice as 'the period between the time at which employees are notified about a decision and the time at which the consequences of the decision take effect', claiming that it belongs to the ethicality dimension of Leventhal *et al.* (1980). In addition, it is regarded as an attribute of some downsizing methods (see Section 2.3) that may enhance employees' well-being, control over their continuity of employment (Greenhalgh *et al.*, 1988), and influence on the downsizing process (Thornhill and Saunders, 1998).

The informal advance notice, which is different from 'hearsay information' (Greenberg, 1993c) or 'hearing through the grapevine' (Mansour-Cole and Scott, 1998), is provided by a formal person but before the formal notification. Hence, it represents an organisational practice. Informal advance notice has all the credibility of the formal advance notice but it is delivered earlier and informally. Therefore, it has similar effect to formal advance notice.

Specifically, since formal advance notice offers a chance for the affected individuals to prepare for the coming event (Posthuma and Campion, 2005), informal advance notice is expected to offer more time, which may help to find another job. According to referent cognition theory, this means high level of amelioration likelihood that can positively affect justice judgement, which is consistent with 'informed self-interest model'.

However, unlike the formal notice, informal advance notice represents a good status for the person who receives it. Providing informal advance notice can be considered as a positive organisational practice that can influence the receiver's attitudes towards the process of downsizing. Further, informal advance notice may represent the concerns for the receiver's outcome as well as polite treatment, which, in turn, affect his/her justice judgement (Lind and Tyler, 1988).

As informal advance notice is an organisational practice associated with job loss, this organisational practice can moderate the influence of prior job attitudes on procedural justice. Specifically, informal advance notice can generate positive attitudes toward the organisation. This means that leavers with positive prior job attitudes would perceive this organisational practice to be consistent with their prior attitudes. Hence, according to the mutual influence between attitudes (discussed earlier), leavers' prior job attitudes would positively influence their perception of procedural justice regarding their job loss.

(B) Process control and decision control

Providing process control or decision control are organisational practices that can generate positive effect on the judgement of the procedural justice (Lind and Tyler, 1988). Lind and Tyler (1988) used the term 'value expression' (voice) which refers to providing opportunities through procedures to express ideas to be considered in decision-making. The effect of process control (voice) and decision control (choice) were demonstrated in several studies.

Considering that process and decision control constitute 'representativeness', Tyler (1988) found that five of Leventhal's (1980) justice rules (ethicality,

representativeness, accuracy, correctability, bias suppression) made independent contributions to the judgement of procedural justice of legal authorities. Classifying procedures into two classes -voice and mute- Bies and Shapiro (1988) claim that voice procedures are those that provide an opportunity for the affected persons to provide input to the decision-maker, whereas, procedures that do not are mute procedures. Reporting results of a laboratory experiment, Bies and Shapiro (1988) found that procedural justice judgments of the subjects in voice-procedures condition were significantly higher than the procedural justice judgments of those who were in mute-procedures condition. To overcome generalising limitations of a laboratory experiment, Bies and Shapiro (1988) conducted a field sitting experiment and found similar results, confirming that individuals perceive voice-procedures as fairer than mute-procedures.

On the other hand, this was not always the case. For example, to explore the role of control (voice and choice) in mediating justice judgement, Earley and Lind (1987) conducted two experiments (laboratory and field setting). Examining three modes of control (voice + choice, choice, no control) in two decision-making situations (selecting a task, and selecting a procedure for assigning the task), Earley and Lind (1987) found that there is no significant mediation of procedural justice judgement by perceived control.

Researchers adopted two arguments to explain the effect of voice (process control) on judgment of procedural justice (Earley and Lind, 1987; Folger *et al.*, 1979; Lind and Tyler, 1988). Thibaut and Walker (1978) propose that the effect of voice can be engendered from using voice to secure a favourable or equitable outcome. Similarly, according to the 'informed self-interest model' (discussed in section 3.5.2), because people are concerned with their outcomes, they seek control over processes of allocation if they were not able to have control over decisions of allocation. Shifting from decision control to process control reflects a social compromise and goal tradeoffs. Other researchers (e.g., Bret and Goldberg, 1983; Folger and Greenberg, 1985; Lind and Tyler, 1988) argue that the effect of voice can be linked to the symbolic value of participation in decision-making. Likewise, Lind and Tyler (1988) state that some reliable research findings supported the view that procedural

justice judgement is affected by process control even in the absence of influencing outcomes. To explain these findings, Lind and Tyler (1988) present their group-value model and claim that people generally value their group membership and status (standing), hence they may desire to participate in their group processes as a marker of their membership. Not fulfilling this desire would appear as a denial of full membership and engender a feeling of injustice. Although voice refers to process control, it is regarded as a non-control issue according to the group value model (Tyler, 1989).

However, although voluntary leavers had control over the decision (choice), they may not interpret this 'choice' as good standing (group status). In such situations, where an individual is responsible for determining the resultant level of outcomes (which resembles the 'bargaining' procedural alternative discussed in Section 3.3.2), bases for challenging the procedures are less available than if an autocratic procedural alternative was applied (Cropanzano and Folger, 1989). For example, reporting two experiments, Earley and Lind (1987) found that in the task-selection situation, perceived procedural justice was higher in voice + choice and choice-only modes than no-control mode; nonetheless, there were no differences between the first two modes in perceived procedural justice. Further, there were no significant differences in the importance of control (decision control) in defining fair procedures attributable to differences in race, gender, income, education, age and liberalism (Tyler, 1989).

As offering voluntary job loss implies providing decision control, such organisational practice that is associated with job loss can moderate the influence of prior job attitudes on procedural justice. Specifically, experiencing decision control by being a voluntary leaver can generate positive attitudes toward the organisation. This means that voluntary leavers with positive prior job attitudes would perceive this organisational practice to be consistent with their prior attitudes. Hence, according to the mutual influence between attitudes (discussed earlier), voluntary leavers' prior job attitudes would positively influence their perception of procedural justice regarding their job loss.

(C) Reasons for the decision of outcome allocation

This factor refers to the perceived reason, or reasons, for the decision of outcome allocation, specifically, the downsizing outcome for the leavers (i.e., job loss and unemployment). This perceived reason could relate to social accounts and level of justification, which represent an essential element of procedural justice, informational justice (see Section 3.3.3). Nonetheless, the perceived reason does not represent this justice aspect, though it may influence it.

In some instances, for example a voluntary job loss, the perceived reason may reflect management's concerns about leavers' wishes to leave their job. In such instances, a leaver may perceive that his/her needs were behind the decision of his/her job loss. This would also be the case if the leaver wanted to leave but did not apply for a voluntary job loss. In other instances, the perceived reason may reflect the force behind downsizing, and then a leaver would perceive that organisational needs were behind the decision of his/her job loss. For example, Hepworth (1980) reported that those who answered 'redundancy', 'end of contract', or 'voluntary' as the reason for their job loss as the reason for their job loss had subjective well-being and psychiatric-illness better than those who answered 'dismissal'. The first two reasons for job loss ('redundancy' and 'end of contract') represent organisational needs whereas the third reason ('voluntary') represents the leaver's needs. Although the fourth reason (dismissal) may represent organisational needs, it indicates that the leaver performance is behind the job loss.

To sum up, the perceived reasons can be categorized into three reasons: leaver's needs, organisational needs, and leaver's performance. These reasons would affect the perception of downsizing and its fairness. The positive effects of these reasons indicate that leavers perceived these reasons as good justification for their job loss.

Further, it is noteworthy that, although some researchers regarded social accounts as a factor that alludes to procedural justice (interactional justice, or informational justice) (e.g., Brockner and Siegel, 1996), some results supported the existence of their influence on both distributive justice and

procedural justice (e.g., Bies, 1987; Bies and Shapiro, 1987; Daly, 1995). Therefore, to understand the influence of this factor, the informational elements of procedural justice are explored.

Supporting the hypotheses that providing causal account and justification adequacy would affect judgment of interactional justice, Bies and Shapiro (1987) reported results of three (two laboratory and one field setting) experiments. Through these experiments, Bies and Shapiro found that subjects in a justification condition judged interactional justice and procedural justice fairer than subjects in a no-justification condition did. In the field setting experiment, they found that justification adequacy had a stronger effect on interactional justice and procedural justice, as providing a causal account did not explain more variance than justification adequacy alone did.

Further, Wanberg *et al.* (1999) found that giving an adequate explanation about layoff significantly predicted perceived layoff fairness, organisational endorsement, and desire to sue past employer, for both re-employed and unemployed participants. They also found the correctability of the termination process significantly predicted perceived layoff fairness for both re-employed and unemployed participants (Wanberg *et al.*, 1999).

Leventhal (1976) classified the techniques that are used to manipulate recipients' perception of allocation outcomes into two groups: techniques that affect recipients' perception of the nature and causes of the allocation decision and techniques that affect recipients' perception of the value of the outcome. Techniques like denying responsibility and justifying the decision are among the first group (Leventhal, 1976), which apparently addresses the procedural justice part of the allocation process. On the other hand, enhancing the value of outcomes, which could be achieved by changing the comparison object, is among the second group (Leventhal, 1976) that apparently addresses the distributive justice part.

Arguing that injustice implies a 'violation of a social norm that causes harm to someone', Bies (1987, p. 293) presents the 'social account' as similar but more comprehensive proposal about manipulating recipient's perceptions of the allocation process. Deeming social account as 'an explanation that

includes a justification and/or an apology' for the violation of justice norms, Bies (1987, p. 289) suggests three factors that affect the severity of social norms violation. Firstly, the level of responsibility of the distributor for outcomes, secondly, the level of outcomes undesirability for the receivers, and thirdly, the level to which outcomes contradict the distributor social identity (Bies, 1987).

Suggesting a typology for social accounts that may reduce the severity of justice norms violation, Bies (1987) stipulates three conditions for their effect to take place. Firstly, the decision-maker is known to the social account audience, secondly, the decision maker needs the social account audience's impression and/or support, and, thirdly, a continuous relationship between the decision-maker and the audience. This typology was adopted from a framework suggested by Snyder *et al.* (1980). Corresponding to the three factors that affect the severity of violating the social norms, Bies (1987) presents a typology that subsumes four types of social account (see Table 3.5). The causal accounts aim at minimising the responsibility of the decision-maker, while ideological, referential and penitential accounts aim at reframing the outcomes through redefining them so as not to appear to be violating social norms, providing a more favourable referent standard to improve their assessment and presenting apologies for them, respectively (Bies, 1987).

Table 3.5 A framework of social accounts

Type of social account	Informational property	Examples
Causal	Responsibility attribution	'A downturn of the economy has forced us to do so' 'The current policy or rule has handcuffed us'
Ideological	Superordinate goal; positive label	'This was done in order to ensure the company's survival' 'He is not treating you unfairly by neglecting you, he is giving you freedom and autonomy'
Referential	Comparison information	'You are better off than others.' 'Things will get better'
Penitential	Remorse	'I'm sorry for what I have done.' 'Please forgive me'

Source: Bies (1987, p.304)

Focussing on the employees' assessment of the relocation decision, Daly (1995) surveyed 183 employees from seven relocated organisations and

found that outcome favourableness moderates the relationship between justification and distributive justice. Specifically, when the respondents evaluate distributive justice, they expect explanations only if they received negative outcomes. On the other hand, when the respondents evaluate procedural justice, they expect explanations even if the outcomes were favourable. These results are consistent with Referent Cognition Theory.

To sum up, reviewing the literature of social accounts and justification helps to understand how the perceived reasons for the decision of job loss can influence the assessment of downsizing judgment. Further, this potential influence may vary between voluntary and compulsory cases, especially because in voluntary cases, individuals had more control of their job loss, and, consequently, are less likely to fault someone else for their job loss (discussed earlier in this Section).

(D) Cognitive dissonance

Several writers (e.g., Cropanzano and Folger, 1989; Folger and Greenberg, 1985) have referred to cognitive dissonance theory to provide plausible explanations for some unexpected findings pertaining to justice judgement, notwithstanding, cognitive dissonance theory is not a justice theory. Further, cognitive dissonance is conceptualised as an unmeasured construct that may mediate the perceptions of downsizing, particularly for downsizing agents (Sronce and McKinley, 2006). For example, being a downsizing agent significantly predicted perceiving downsizing as inevitable and as an implied contract breach (Sronce and McKinley, 2006).

The word 'cognitive' was used in naming this theory to emphasize that it is pertaining to relations among pieces of information (Festinger, 1962). When two pieces of information are considered psychologically inconsistent, they are regarded as in a dissonant relation. Festinger (1962) articulates that should a person receive two pieces of information that are in a dissonant relation, s/he would try to make changes in these pieces of information to make them consistent. Changes made to these two pieces of information are labelled dissonance-reducing changes, which may subsume changes in behaviour, feelings, opinion and so on (Festinger, 1962). Because it drives a person to

make such changes, Festinger (1962, p. 3) deems cognitive dissonance as 'a motivated state of affairs'.

Providing experimental support for the theory, Festinger (1962) predicts that dissonance-reduction may exist after making a choice between two comparable alternatives. In such situations, and merely when the decision is made and its outcome is clear, a person would try to boost the advantages of the chosen alternative and the disadvantages of the non-chosen one (Festinger, 1962).

Acknowledging that a psychological activity aiming at reducing dissonance may not take place under all circumstances, Festinger (1962) argues, based on experimental results, that dissonance-reduction occurs only when weak reasons support deciding on the chosen alternative.

Adams (1965) postulates several methods to reduce inequity. Firstly, Person might alter his/her inputs or outcomes. Alternatively, Person might cognitively distort his/her inputs and outcomes as if s/he altered them actually. If none of the above methods succeeded, Person might decide to leave the field where inequity exists. On the other hand, Person might apply the above methods on Other. Finally, if Person and Other were not in a direct exchange, changing Other would be a possible method to reduce inequity. Distorting inputs or outcomes as suggested by Adams (1965) resembles Festinger's (1962) argument about dissonance-reduction.

In situations where an individual is responsible for processing and determining the resultant level of outcomes if the outcomes were predictable, a dissonance-reduction explanation could account for lesser unfairness perception for high-referent (low level) outcomes (Cropanzano and Folger, 1989; Folger and Greenberg, 1985). The effect of dissonance reduction is expected to take place in voluntary cases, where the leavers were largely responsible for determining their outcomes.

3.6 Summary of Chapter 3

The organisational justice literature has been applied to downsizing, especially regarding the allocation of its outcomes. The term 'organisational justice', which was first coined by Greenberg (1987), refers to fairness in organisations and workplaces (Greenberg, 1990). This study pertains to the research that focuses on the antecedents of organisational justice.

Theory and research on organisational justice witnessed several waves (Brockner and Siegel, 1996; Byrne and Cropanzano, 2001), which brought about up to four forms of justice: distributive, procedural, and interactional (that subsumes interpersonal and informational justice) (Nowakowski and Conlon, 2005). The dimensionality of organisational justice is still debatable (e.g., Bobocel and Holmvall, 2001; Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2001), nevertheless, there is a wide agreement on dividing organisational justice into two facets: distributive justice and procedural justice (Bobocel and Holmvall, 2001; Byrne and Cropanzano, 2001; Colquitt *et al.*, 2001), which is followed in this study.

Distributive justice, which refers to fairness of outcome, was the real beginning of organisational justice (Byrne and Cropanzano, 2001), and was the first justice construct to be studied by social psychologists (Nowakowski and Conlon, 2005). Much of the research about distributive justice was derived from 'equity theory' (Colquitt *et al.*, 2001) that Adams (1965) elaborated on Homans' (1961) work (Byrne and Cropanzano, 2001).

The initial propositions about distributive justice (Adams, 1965; Blau 1964; Deutsch, 1975; Homans, 1961) acknowledged that parts of social exchange might differ in assessing their inputs and outcomes and, consequently, their proportions, which would result in different judgement of distributive justice.

To arrive to a fair allocation, there are several distributional standards, which can be adopted in different situations. These standards of justice that are learned through socialisation, differ from one group or society to another group or society (Lind and Tyler, 1988). Including Adams' equity criterion, Deutsch (1975) presented 11 criteria upon which distribution can be done.

Lerner (1977) presented, based on experimental evidence, five of Deutsch's (1975) 11 values, as the most prevalent. These forms are justice of parity (equal allocations), justice of equity (matching outcomes with inputs), justice of competition (matching outcomes with performance in equal opportunities), Marxian justice (needs are the base for distribution), and legal justice (can be developed, evaluated, and modified depending on the other forms of justice). Leventhal (1980) refers to these forms of justice, among other forms, as justice rules. Deciding which justice rule and procedures to follow may depend on the aim of the distribution.

The other facet of organisational justice is procedural justice that refers to the 'fairness of the processes used to plan and implement the decision' (Brockner and Siegel, 1996). As an evolution to organisational justice, Thibaut and Walker (1975), who conducted their studies in legal procedures settings, present their pioneering theory of procedural justice. Thibaut and Walker (1975) claim that procedures are fair if they assign much control over the process of decision-making to the receivers of outcomes. In simulated dispute-resolution procedures, Thibaut and Walker (1975) found support for the effect of 'voice' on the perceived fairness of verdicts, even in the absence of any influence on the outcome.

Claiming that an individual develops cognitive maps of the allocation process, Leventhal (1980) identifies seven procedural components that may represent the structural elements in these cognitive maps. These components are selection of agent, setting ground rules, gathering information, decision structure, appeals, safeguards, and change mechanism. Arguing that an individual bases his/her judgment of procedural justice on justice rules, Leventhal (1980) postulates six procedural justice rules consistency rule, bias-suppression rule, accuracy rule, correctability rule, representativeness rule, and ethicality rule. Claiming that an individual uses these rules selectively, Leventhal (1980) assumes that their importance (weight) differs from time to time.

Several researchers (e.g., Brockner and Siegel, 1996; Tyler, 1989; Wiesenfeld *et. al.*, 2000) claim that procedural justice has two aspects: structure of the

decision process, and interpersonal behaviour of decision implementer. The former (structural/formal aspect) subsumes process control (voice), decision control (choice), opportunities to correct, and consistency, while the later (social/informal aspect) is regarded as interactional justice (Brockner and Siegel, 1996).

As an extension to procedural justice, Bies and Moag (1986, p. 44) were first to identify the term 'interactional justice' that refers to people's assessment of 'the quality of interpersonal treatment they receive during the enactment of organizational procedures'. Bies and Moag (1986) identified several attributes that influence interactional justice judgments, which can be categorized as treatment-related attributes (e.g., propriety of behaviour) and as explanation-related attribute (justifying decisions). The importance of these attributes was confirmed in several studies, though, in some of those studies, these attributes were intended to represent procedural justice rather than interactional justice. The introduction of interactional justice attracted many researchers' interest, though some of them may not share the idea of considering interactional justice as a separate facet of organisational justice (e.g., Greenberg, 1990). Consequently, deeming it as the interpersonal aspect of the procedural justice, some researchers (e.g., Brockner and Siegel, 1996; Greenberg, 1990; Tyler and Bies, 1990) state that interactional justice consists of two major factors: providing adequate explanation, and treating affected persons with dignity and respect. These two aspects were reintroduced by Greenberg (1993b) as two separate facets of organisational justice, namely, 'informational justice' and 'interpersonal justice', respectively. Greenberg (1993b) used the term 'informational justice' to refer to the social determinants of procedural justice. Informational justice pertains to providing knowledge (about the used procedures and the received outcomes) to the receivers (Colquitt *et al.*, 2001). Greenberg (1993b) used the term 'interpersonal justice' to refer to the social determinant of distributive justice, which can be enhanced by showing concern for people regarding the outcomes they receive.

Organisational justice was applied to downsizing contexts such as restructuring, relocation and job loss. However, Wanberg *et al.* (1999, p. 60)

emphasized that 'there have been relatively few studies assessing the predictors of the perceived fairness of layoffs among layoff victims'. Likewise, Byrne and Cropanzano (2001) reported Bies' recommendation (as one of the founders of organisational justice research) to address current business issues like downsizing.

It can be argued that the literature of organisational justice addressed at least four areas: explaining people's concerns about justice, exploring the way people make justice assessment, investigating the consequences of justice assessments, and identifying factors affecting justice judgment. The literature review is structured according to these four areas.

As regards to explaining people's concerns about justice, Leventhal (1976, 1980) articulates five reasons that would activate distributive justice evaluation or re-evaluation. These reasons are: a change in the level of outcomes, believing that a justice rule has been violated, occupying a social role for assessing deservingness (e.g. referee), not being preoccupied with more important activities and, being a member in pluralist social system. Cropanzano *et al.* (2001) propose four psychological needs that might answer why people make fairness judgment. These needs are the need for control, need for positive self-regard, need for belonging, need for meaning

As regards to exploring the way people make justice assessment, Lind and Tyler (1988) highlight the distinction between subjective (psychological response) and objective (state of affairs) justice. The justice theories and models presented in this chapter pertain to the subjective judgement of justice. These theories and models were egoistic relative deprivation, informed self interest model vs. group value model, referent cognition theory and theory of justice. As a proposed reconciliation of these theories and models, it was argued that judgement of distributive justice implies a process of comparing what a person obtained (actual outcome) to what s/he ought to obtain (expected outcome), which is determined by his/her input, referent outcome, or deserved outcome. According to Fairness Theory (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998), and monistic perspective (Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2001) this framework can be generalised to all facets of organisational justice.

Thereby the comparison would be between actual outcomes, procedures, and treatments to expected outcomes, procedures, and treatments (see Figure 3.2).

As regards to investigating the consequences of justice assessments, researchers have examined several outcomes of organisational justice judgment. Further, research has shown that distributive justice and procedural justice are highly correlated, which may imply that distributive justice and procedural justice affect each other (Cropanzano and Ambrose, 2001). Folger *et al.* (1979) propose two opposite scenarios for the effect of procedural justice on the assessment of distributive justice: the fair-process effect (perceiving high procedural justice reflects that the outcomes are the results of fair processes) and the frustration effect (high procedural justice increases outcomes expectancy). One way to analyse the consequences of justice judgement is what is called 'the main effect approach', which is concerned with the unshared variance (Sweeney and McFarlin, 1993). Specifically, McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) argued and found that procedural justice has a stronger effect on organisational outcome (e.g., organisational commitment) while distributive justice has a stronger effect on personal outcomes (e.g., pay satisfaction). McFarlin and Sweeney (1992, p. 627) claim that these results exemplify what they called 'the main effect approach', which was echoed elsewhere (e.g., Mansour-Cole and Scott, 1998; Sweeney and McFarlin, 1993) and resembled earlier research (e.g., Tylor and Caine, 1981). An explanation for these results is that unlike distributive justice judgements that pertain to specific situations or outcomes, both procedural justice judgements and attitudes towards organisations have a level of generality with respect to time (Lind and Tyler, 1988).

As regards to identifying factors affecting justice judgment, theories and models, discussed in Section 3.5.2, proposed several factors that can influence justice judgement. Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) grouped the factors that influence justice judgment in three categories: organisational outcome, organisational practices, and perceiver characteristics. The first category involves the actual outcome that has been received, which was discussed in the previous chapter. The second category included process and

decision control, advance notification, reasons for the decision of allocation. The third category subsumes demographics and personality traits (negative affectivity, positive affectivity, and locus of control). A fourth category is proposed, which pertains to prior job attitudes (prior job satisfaction and prior organisational commitment). The effects of these factors, in addition to the other factors that were identified in Chapter 2, are illustrated in Figure 3.3. In Chapter 4, which explores the context of this study, this model is further developed by being contextualised to this study.

Chapter Four: The Case of ESTEDA'A

4.1 Introduction

As declared earlier, this study pertains to a specific downsizing method, namely, ESTEDA'A, which is used in a specific context, namely, downsizing the Jordanian Civil Service. In this chapter, ESTEDA'A and its context are explored. The two themes of this study, downsizing and organisational justice, were explored in the previous Chapters 2 and 3, where several factors that can influence leavers' perception of downsizing and its fairness were identified. After exploring ESTEDA'A and its context, a part of these factors, which were identified regarding job loss in general, are contextualised in relation to this study.

As no research pertaining to ESTEDA'A or downsizing in Jordan was found, the information about ESTEDA'A is derived, mainly, from secondary data. Specifically, unless indicated otherwise, the information presented in this chapter is based on information provided, directly⁶ or were available on their websites, by Jordanian Civil Service Bureau and Jordanian Department of Statistics. Further, some information was obtained through the preliminary interviews and data collecting process explained in Chapter 6. Otherwise, it was referred to the literature on downsizing public sectors and reform of civil services in developing countries.

Firstly, the method 'ESTEDA'A' is explored with an emphasis on its uniqueness, followed by the context in which ESTEDA'A is applied. Exploring the context of ESTEDA'A covers two areas that link to the main themes of this study: downsizing the Jordanian public sector and Jordanian perspective of justice.

⁶ The word 'directly' includes provided personally and/or via emails, to the researcher.

4.2 Jordanian Civil Service

The first Jordanian legislation pertaining to state personnel appeared on 31st December 1926. The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan was then the Eastern Jordan Emirate. This legislation divided personnel into three categories, each of which had several levels. In 1955, the first Jordanian Civil Service Bureau was established according to the statute number 11 for that year. In 1988, a new Jordanian Civil Service Bylaw (JCSB) was issued, by which personnel of numerous public institutions that had previously functioned according to private regulations were included within the civil service. The JCSB of 1988 was the first bylaw to include ESTEDA'A, as a possible method to end civil servants' employments. In 1998 another JCSB was issued, which included some changes regarding ESTEDA'A. These changes are addressed in next section. The last JCSB was issued in 2002.

According to the JCSB (2002) and its respective instructions of job description and employments' classification, civil servants are now classified into four categories. Occupiers of the first category propose general policies, prepare plans for their sections, and follow up these policies and plans. Occupiers of the second category carry out and supervise administrative, educational, accountancy, clerical, or similar works. Occupiers of the third category carry out and supervise managerial, educational, accountancy, technical, clerical or similar work. Finally, occupiers of the fourth category provide and supervise various assistant services whether professional, craftsmanship or administrative. Each category has several levels (called degrees), where smaller number indicates higher rank as follows:

- Levels of the first category are termed: special degree, first degree and second degree.
- Levels of the second category are termed: special degree, and the degrees (1-8).
- Levels of the third category are termed: the degrees (1-10).
- Levels of the fourth category are termed: the degrees (1-3).

4.3 ESTEDA'A

ESTEDA'A is neither an abbreviation nor an acronym, though it is written in capitals. ESTEDA'A is an Arabic word that has no English equivalent. Nevertheless, the Jordanian Civil Service Bureau used the words 'deposit' and 'provisional retirement', when referring to ESTEDA'A in different versions of their reports in English. ESTEDA'A is a downsizing method that has been applied in the Jordanian Civil Service since 1988. Through searching for information about ESTEDA'A, it appeared that ESTEDA'A is also applied in civil services of other countries in the region besides Jordan (including Egypt, Qatar, and Syria). However, there was insufficient information to compare the legislations of these countries to consider the similarity to the Jordanian ESTEDA'A. Therefore, the information presented in this chapter pertains only to the Jordanian ESTEDA'A.

According to the Jordanian Civil Service Bylaw of 2002, the Cabinet has the right to award ESTEDA'A to any civil servant (a) compulsorily, upon the Minister's recommendation, or (b) voluntarily, upon the employee's request and the Minister's recommendation. Civil servants who are awarded ESTEDA'A will be referred to as ESTEDA'A leavers, of which, those who were awarded a compulsory ESTEDA'A will be referred to as compulsory cases, whereas those who were awarded a voluntary ESTEDA'A will be referred to as voluntary cases.

According to Jordanian Civil Service Bylaw (JCSB, 2002), when a civil servant is awarded ESTEDA'A s/he will leave the civil service and start her/his ESTEDA'A period, which does not exceed 5 years and is ended by retirement (i.e. the civil servant will be considered retired by the end of her/his ESTEDA'A period). Further, during ESTEDA'A period, an ESTEDA'A leaver can work with any nongovernmental body without the need for permission, however; s/he has to pay his/her pension contributions for the whole period, and will receive no salary, except if s/he was compulsorily awarded ESTEDA'A. As an exception, a compulsory case will receive family allowance and half of the basic salary, category and degree allowance and personal allowance. This exception was made in the JCSB (1998) and succeeding bylaws, before that,

all ESTEDA'A leavers would receive that amount stated earlier (family allowance and half of the basic salary, category and degree allowance and personal allowance). In addition, although ESTEDA'A period is considered for retirement qualifying (i.e. regarded as years in service), there will be no salary raise or promotion after it starts (see Table 4.1).

According to JCSB (2002), the family allowance is determined upon the marital status and number of children of a civil servant. Specifically, if the civil servant is the main breadwinner, s/he (usually he) will receive a premium for each of his/her first three children. In cases where the civil servant's wife does not work with a governmental body, he will receive a premium for only one wife (as a Muslim in Jordan, a man can have up to four wives). The only case, in which a female civil servant is regarded as main breadwinner, is when she is a widow or her husband is unable to work.

Table 4.1 Differences between ESTEDA'A types

	ESTEDA'A type		
During ESTEDA'A period:	Compulsory cases	Voluntary cases in 1998 and before	Voluntary cases after 1998
• Receive compensations	They do	They do	They do not
• Work for any non-governmental body	They can	They can	They can
• Pension contributions are paid by individuals	They are	They are	They are
At the end of ESTEDA'A period	Retired with pension	Retired with pension	Retired with pension

As shown in Table 4.1, voluntary cases who were awarded ESTEDA'A in 1998 or before would receive compensation during ESTEDA'A period, whereas the other voluntary cases would not. Consequently, voluntary ESTEDA'A can be categorized into two types: induced voluntary ESTEDA'A (cases in, and before, 1998), and non-induced voluntary ESTEDA'A. Further, compulsory cases in, and before, 1998 had the same compensation as voluntary cases but had no decision control, whereas after 1998 only compulsory cases receive compensation. This would yield two types of compulsory ESTEDA'A: high-referent compulsory ESTEDA'A (in, and before, 1998), and compulsory ESTEDA'A. The possible ways to categorize

ESTEDA'A types are addressed in Section 5.4.1 and operationalized in Section 6.8.3.

Referring to the four characteristics of organisational downsizing (see Section 2.2.2) proposed by Cameron (1993), it can be seen that using ESTEDA'A maintains these characteristics. Specifically, using ESTEDA'A is an intentional effort that brings about a reduction in personnel. Further, the forces behind downsizing the Jordanian Civil Service (discussed in Section 4.4.1), indicate the ESTEDA'A was used to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of the Jordanian Civil Service and would affect work processes. Further, using ESTEDA'A conforms to downsizing as defined in this study.

4.3.1 ESTEDA'A and retirement

Since ESTEDA'A leavers are considered retired by the end of the ESTEDA'A period, it is deemed helpful to explore some of the implications of this. According to JSCB (2002) all ESTEDA'A leavers (compulsory cases and voluntary cases) were not eligible for retirement when they were awarded ESTEDA'A. Nevertheless, all ESTEDA'A leavers will be considered retired civil servants by the end of their ESTEDA'A periods. Further, both retired civil servants and ESTEDA'A leavers can work with any nongovernmental body. However, those retired receive pensions that are more than what ESTEDA'A leavers receive during their ESTEDA'A periods. Therefore, it can be concluded that in terms of outcome level, retirement is better than ESTEDA'A. Consequently, ESTEDA'A period can be perceived as an obstacle to reach retirement.

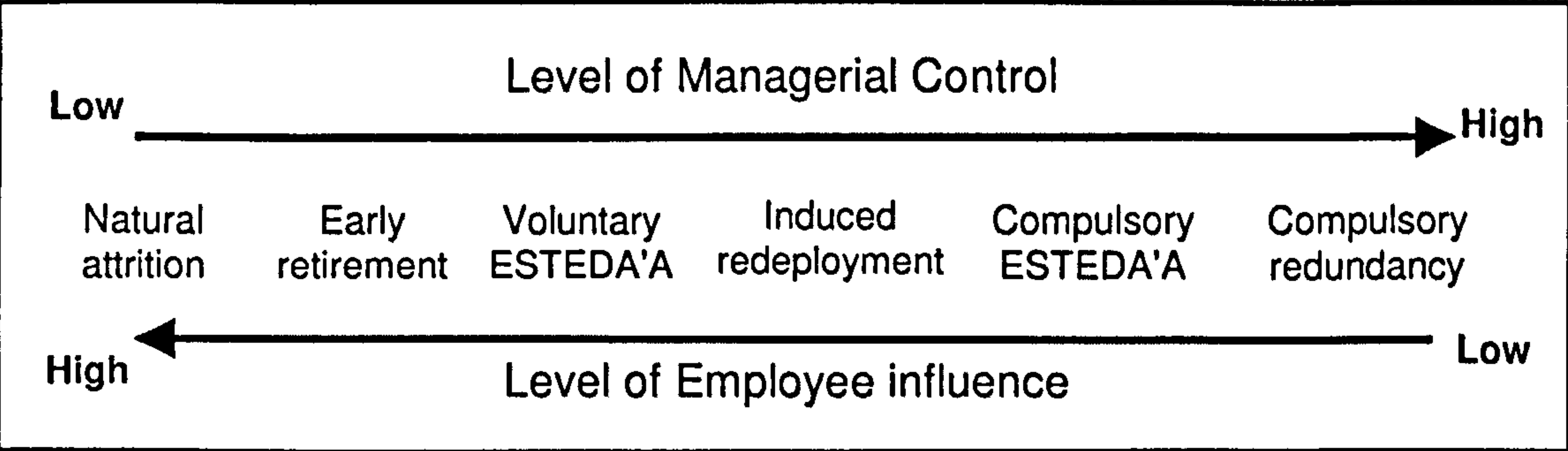
It is noteworthy that there are two types of pensions according to the provider. Specifically, pensions of the Jordanian civil servants who were hired after 1995 are provided by the Jordanian Social Security Corporation, which is an autonomous agency that provides old-age and disability pensions. In contrast, other Jordanian civil servants' pensions are provided by the Jordanian Civil Service Bureau, which is considered more generous than the former (International Monetary Fund, 2004).

4.3.2 ESTEDA'A and other downsizing methods

Greenhalgh *et. al.* (1988) argue that the public sector is less likely to use severe strategies compared to private sector. However, there are several downsizing methods that have been applied in public sector including a freeze on recruitment, laying off of workers on temporary contracts, voluntary redundancies, compulsory redundancies and privatisation (Marinakis, 1994).

The downsizing methods that were researched and/or reported in the downsizing literature have been used mainly in western context. In such methods, incentives were provided to induce voluntary cases. In the case of ESTEDA'A, such incentives were present before 1998, however, as both voluntary cases and compulsory cases received the same outcomes (before 1998), it can be argued that such outcomes can be regarded as incentives for voluntary cases and as compensations for compulsory cases. On the other hand, after 1998, such outcomes (incentives) were no longer provided to voluntary cases, which contradict other voluntary methods, especially because compulsory cases still receive such outcomes (compensations)⁷.

Figure 4.1 Classification of downsizing methods according to management influence and employee influence



Source: developed from Thornhill and Saunders (1998)

As stated earlier, referring to the classification of downsizing methods that was proposed in Section 2.5.1, ESTEDA'A belongs to the group of downsizing methods that terminate employees' employment, and can be applied voluntarily and compulsorily. With regard to the classification proposed by

⁷ It is noteworthy that one respondent (a voluntary leaver) considered this state as rewarding the unwanted or bad employees.

Thornhill and Saunders (1998), voluntary ESTEDA'A has a lower level of 'managerial control' and a higher level of 'employee influence' compared to compulsory ESTEDA'A. This indicates that this classification can be upgraded by adding the two ESTEDA'A types. The upgraded classification is presented in Figure 4.1.

In contrast, according to the classification of downsizing methods proposed by Greenhalgh *et al.* (1988), it can be argued that voluntary ESTEDA'A implies a higher level in terms of 'the protection of employee well-being' than compulsory ESTEDA'A. However, the tradeoffs with the other criterion 'short-term cost saving for the organisation' (i.e., if A is higher than B on one criterion it should be lower than B on the other criteria) are not present when comparing the two ESTEDA'A types. Specifically, according to the legislations before 1998, an ESTEDA'A leaver would cost/save the Jordanian Civil Service the same amount whether s/he was awarded a compulsory ESTEDA'A or a voluntary ESTEDA'A. Consequently, in this case, there is no difference between the two ESTEDA'A types according to the second criterion. Whereas, after 1998, if an ESTEDA'A leaver was awarded a compulsory ESTEDA'A, it would cost more (save less) than if s/he was awarded a voluntary ESTEDA'A. In this case, voluntary ESTEDA'A is higher than compulsory ESTEDA'A with respect to both criteria. Therefore, the absence of tradeoffs between the two criteria when comparing the two ESTEDA'A types hinders adding the two ESTEDA'A types to that classification, which emphasises the uniqueness of ESTEDA'A.

4.4 Downsizing the Jordanian Civil Service

Downsizing the public sector entails several social, political, and economic risks (Chiavo-Campo, 1996), which may impose the use of less severe downsizing methods (Greenhalgh *et al.*, 1988). For example, downsizing within an environment of high unemployment rates, like in Jordan (see next Section), particularly if applied on the civil service, would imply high political risk (Chiavo-Campo, 1996). Due to such social, political, and economic implications, the Jordanian government, instead of setting a policy of termination or firing employees, used other downsizing methods (Al-Kayed *et*

al. 1999a). For example, Jordanian government gave early retirement incentives, made recruitment freeze (natural attrition), halted creating new positions (Al-Kayed *et al.* 1999a), and awarded ESTEDA'A (Jordan Times, June 11, 1998).

4.4.1 Forces behind downsizing the Jordanian Civil Service

In Section 2.4, several forces that may engender the need for downsizing were identified. However, not all these forces may be applied to the context of this study. Further, although the World Bank highlighted the need to downsize the public sectors in developing countries, including Jordan (McCourt, 2001), this may not represent the forces behind downsizing rather than an initiative to comply with the existing forces.

In the 1960s and 1970s, securing employment for graduates was among the state responsibilities in the countries of the Middle East and North Africa, which brought about large central administrations (Chiavo-Campo, 1996). At the same time, governments took the so-called role of 'employer of the last resort' through their efforts to attenuate unemployment (Marinakis, 1994, p. 61). However, a contradicting view that the state should increase its reliance on a market-determined pricing system and confine itself to limited public sector intervention in certain areas, highlighted the need to downsize the public sector (Marinakis, 1994). This view is based upon two assumptions. Firstly, that the smaller the public sector is the better, and secondly, that inefficiency in the public sector activities is inevitable (Marinakis, 1994).

During the oil boom period (late 1970s and early 1980s), Jordanian

Government appointments were made in an environment of scarcity of employees, and some unqualified people found their way into public service. Presently, many of them occupy top, sensitive positions in Government and its institutions. (Al-Kayed *et al.* 1999b) [on-line]

Table 4.2 shows the increasing numbers of civil servants across the years, especially during 1970s and 1980s, and the relative stability in the recent years (2001-2004). Also it can be noted that there was a reduction in personnel numbers in the year 1990 compared to 1988, which was the

starting year for awarding ESTEDA'A, though, the number of ESTEDA'A leavers in that year does not explain this reduction, but it may imply the start of a downsizing strategy in public sector.

Table 4.2 Numbers of civil servants in Jordan across years

Year*	Personnel Number	Rate of Change**	Rate of Change per year
1955	6561	Starting Year	Starting Year
1967	22556	243.8%	20.3%
1975	51744	129.4%	16.2%
1986	82658	59.7%	5.4%
1988	95571	15.6%	7.8%
1990	91375	-4.4%	-2.2%
1992	110665	21.1%	10.6%
1994	118527	7.1%	3.6%
2001	139361	17.6%	2.5%
2002	138148	-0.9%	-0.9%
2003	136878	-0.9%	-0.9%
2004	138706	1.3%	1.3%

Source: Jordanian Civil Service Bureau
 * Missing years were not provided
 ** Compared to the nearest previous available year

Table 4.3 shows unemployment rates in Jordan, which may have engendered overstaffing in the civil service and simultaneously may hinder downsizing the civil service, or at least limits the methods that may be used (Chiavo-Campo, 1996). Especially, although insurance against unemployment ought legally to be provided by the Jordanian Social Security Corporation (Social Security Law, 1978; 2001), this insurance is not available yet, though, it was declared that it is under consideration (Al-Rai Newspaper, 2006). Across the years, the unemployment rates of female are higher than those of males, except illiterate category, who cannot be civil servants. As discussed in Section 2.7.3, unemployment rates may influence the effects of job loss, and consequently perceptions of downsizing and its fairness. Therefore, these numbers presented in Table 4.3 are also used in measuring the variable ‘unemployment rates’ (discussed in Chapter 6).

Table 4.3 Unemployment rates in Jordan

	Years*													
Gender and Educational Level	1991	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	
Illiterate	8.76	11.32	6.03	6.29	5.21	7.47	5.33	8.36	10.1	10.7	10.9	9.8	8.9	
Less than Secondary	15.22	17.58	14.39	13.8	11.38	13.11	15.24	15.66	14.8	16.6	17	15.6	13.8	
Secondary	18.11	20.23	16.04	16.24	11.76	14.19	13.04	12.24	12.3	14.3	13.5	12.1	9.3	
Intermediate Diploma	29.02	32.36	26.3	25.43	18.6	21.34	20.55	18.59	13.9	13.6	14.2	13.2	11.8	
Bachelor & above	16.8	15.69	13.26	12.1	11.76	14.07	14.57	13.48	11.8	11.8	13.3	14.7	11.9	
Male	14.47	16.65	13.59	12.97	10.68	11.68	12.69	11.95	12.3	14	14	13.4	11.8	
Illiterate	9.36	10.55	6.08	7.08	6.19	7.99	5.41	8.05	10.4	10.6	11.5	10.8	9.5	
Less than Secondary	14.1	16.81	14.16	13.37	11.38	12.49	14.84	13.68	14.3	16.4	16.6	15.5	13.9	
Secondary	15.51	17.39	14.42	14.23	11.16	11.34	10.47	9.52	10.7	12.5	11.8	11.4	9	
Intermediate Diploma	18.75	21.59	17.09	14.78	11.53	10.99	9.53	9.61	8.4	7.5	8.4	8.7	8	
Bachelor & above	14.85	14.02	10.89	10.44	8.65	11.65	9.9	9.88	9.2	9.8	10.3	10.7	9.2	
Female	34.16	36.55	29.38	29.07	20.83	28.54	27.53	27.45	21	20.2	21.9	20.8	16.5	
Illiterate	3.34	16.33	5.33	0.93	0	5	5.59	9.56	8.7	11.9	6.4	2.3	3.8	
Less than Secondary	28.48	33.58	20.29	22.67	11.43	33.96	21.68	27.95	23.4	19.5	23.5	18.2	10.8	
Secondary	34.6	36.97	26.61	28.37	15.79	30.46	24.9	28.69	21.8	24.6	23.1	16.8	12.1	
Intermediate Diploma	43.43	46.3	38.4	39.83	30.35	34.86	34.71	32.75	22.7	22.7	23.3	20.9	19.9	
Bachelor & above	25.08	21.45	20.95	17.94	21.51	20.05	26.76	23.03	18.5	16.9	20.4	24	18.1	
Total	17.08	19.6	15.77	15.3	12.11	14.43	15.17	14.38	13.7	14.9	15.3	14.5	12.5	

Source: The Jordanian Department of Statistics

* Missing years are not available

Another force that can be applicable to the context of this study is privatisation. As stated in Section 4.2, issuing the JCSB (1988) brought about incorporating within the civil service personnel of numerous public institutions, which have previously functioned according to private regulations. Nonetheless, as a key element in the transformation of the Jordanian economy since mid-1996, Jordanian consecutive governments have privatized most these state-owned enterprises by the end of 2004 (International Monetary Fund, 2004). As table 4.4 shows, the number of ESTEDA'A leavers has increased from 62 in 1996 to 311 in 1997. This may also imply a possible association between ESTEDA'A and privatisation.

Table 4.4 Numbers of ESTEDA'A leavers across years

Year	Personnel Number	Percentage to the total	Accumulative number
1988	8	0.25%	49
1989	11	0.35%	94
1990	25	0.79%	44
1991	5	0.16%	49
1992	45	1.42%	94
1993	33	1.04%	127
1994	27	0.85%	154
1995	28	0.88%	182
1996	62	1.96%	244
1997	311	9.83%	555
1998	540	17.06%	1095
1999	388	12.26%	1483
2000	249	7.87%	1732
2001	452	14.28%	2184
2002	341	10.77%	2525
2003	219	6.92%	2744
2004	421	13.30%	3165*

Source: Jordanian Civil Service Bureau
 *The total accumulative number is different from the population of this study, as it includes all ESTEDA'A leavers in the year 2004.

The other indication for the association between privatization and ESTEDA'A appeared by analysing ESTEDA'A leavers' previous employers⁸, i.e., before leaving the civil service. This analysis shows that 39.5% of ESTEDA'A leavers were employed by one of the privatized institutions. In contrast, only 33.9% of ESTEDA'A leavers were employed by the ministries of education and health, which employ two-third⁹ of the civil servants.

The data collected for this study also support the association between ESTEDA'A and privatisation. Specifically, many of the respondents (46 out of 306) of this study indicated that privatization was the reason behind being awarded ESTEDA'A, of which, 43 were awarded ESTEDA'A in or after 1997. A proportion of those (35 out of 46) retained their job but with a new employer of the private sector. Specifically, according to the letters that some respondents attached to their returned questionnaire (discussed further in Section 6.4.3), these ESTEDA'A leavers who used to work for one of the privatized institutions, were recruited by the new management of the privatized institution. However, although they may have the same duties, new work regulations and salary schemes are applied.

4.5 Jordanian perspective of justice and equality

As discussed in 3.5.4, whether a society was concerned with justice issues would enhance the proneness to relative deprivation, especially when people habitually compare themselves to others (Crosby, 1976). Therefore it is beneficial to explore how Jordanians perceive justice and equality in their country.

In reporting the public opinion poll pertaining to democracy in Jordan, the Center for Strategic Studies (2005) found that there is a general impression shared by 61% of the respondents that Jordan is a country where equality prevails, and by 64% of respondents that Jordan is a country where justice

⁸ A list of all ESTEDA'A persons that included their previous employers was provided by the Jordanian Civil Service Bureau.

⁹ This ratio was calculated according to employees numbers presented in the Jordanian Civil Service Bureau annual reports of 2001 and 2002.

prevails. Nonetheless, 40.5% of respondents believe that the principle of equal opportunities was not implemented in Jordan. Further, with respect to perceived justice and equality in distributing the revenues of national income, 65% of the respondents felt some form of injustice, particularly; 'the country's economy is utilized in service of people with interests and not all citizens' (Center for Strategic Studies, 2005, p. 9). To explain this low level of justice and equality, the Center for Strategic Studies (2005) suggests considering the percentage (45%) of respondents who reported that the economic situation had deteriorated in the last 12 months.

In addition, although 43.3% of respondents believe that the government is seriously fighting corruption compared with 39% who believe it is not, 76.7% of respondents reported that

they cannot disagree and criticize the government in public without being subjected to security or living consequences. (Center for Strategic Studies, 2005, p. 8)

This particular finding was considered when developing research questionnaire of this study (see Section 6.8).

Further, as discussed in Chapter 3, fairness can be present upon certain justice rule and simultaneously can be absent according to another justice rule. Considering 'family allowance' discussed in Section 4.2 may exemplify how Jordanian perspective of justice and equality is different from the western perspective. Specifically, a female civil servant is not considered as main breadwinner (and consequently does not deserve family allowance) according to her participation in the family income, rather her being as main breadwinner is determined upon being the only breadwinner. On the other hand, a male civil servant is always considered as a main breadwinner. This can be explained by considering that men can be forced by the law to spend on their family members (who may include parents, unmarried sisters, aunts, and aged relatives), whilst women can not.

The other justice concern regarding 'family allowance' is polygamy, which can be considered as illegal and/or unjust in another country. Nonetheless, in a

country like Jordan where polygamy is legal for Muslim males, it can be argued that it is not fair to exclude other wives (beyond the first wife) when considering family allowance.

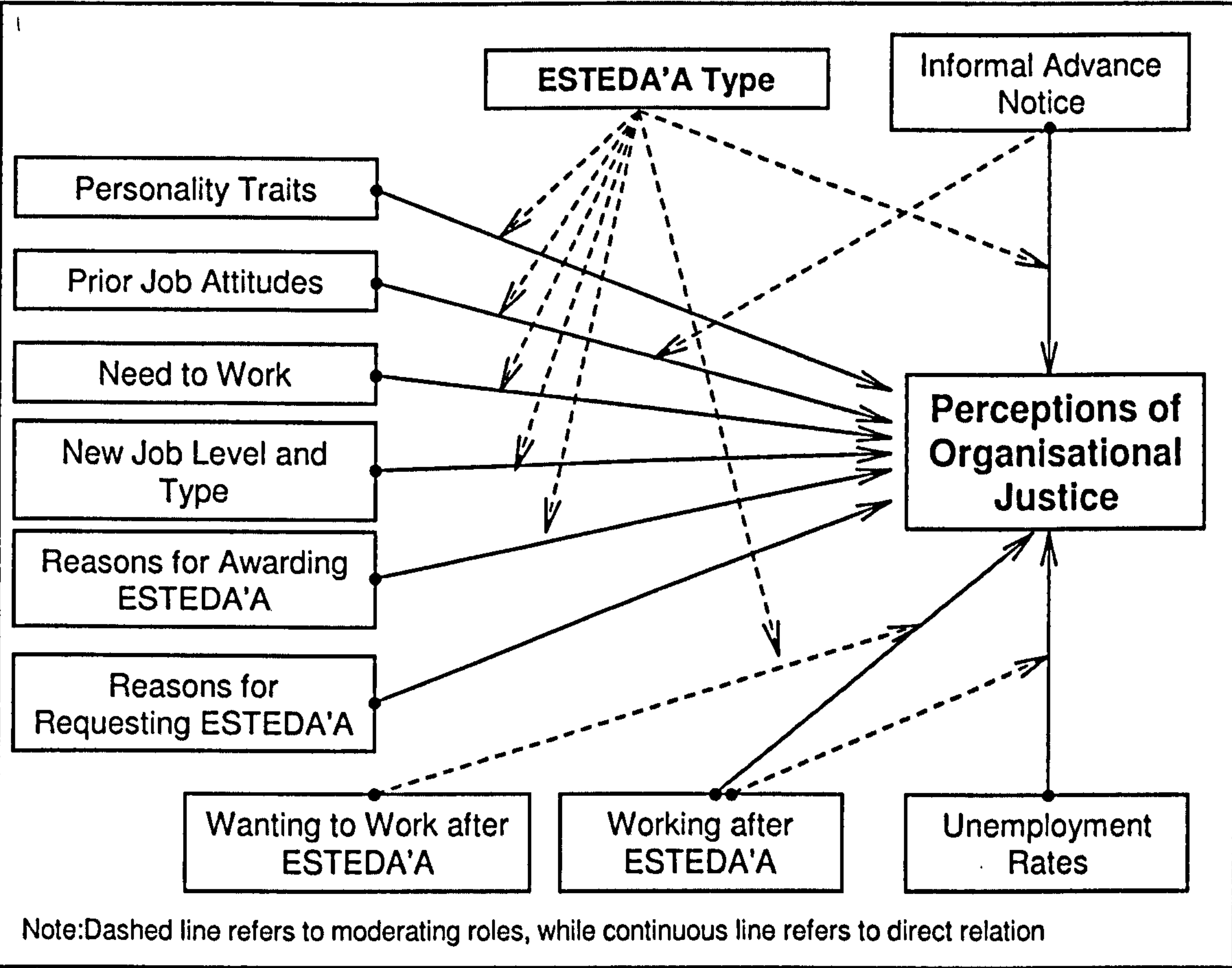
Considering family allowance may not relate directly to this study, nevertheless, it may illustrate the difference between Jordanian and western societies in applying justice rules.

4.6 Factors affecting the leavers' perceptions of ESTEDA'A and its fairness

The factors that were identified to have influences on leavers' perceptions of downsizing and its fairness can be applicable to all downsizing leavers. Some of these factors are contextualised in this section to reflect the context of this study. Specifically, the factors that pertain to downsizing are specified in regard to ESTEDA'A rather than any downsizing method. Therefore, the effect of job loss in general, is the effect of awarding ESTEDA'A in this study. Working after ESTEDA'A influences the perception of ESTEDA'A and its fairness, this influence is conditional upon wanting to work after ESTEDA'A. Working after ESTEDA'A also moderates the effect of unemployment rates on the perceptions of ESTEDA'A and its fairness.

Further, ESTEDA'A type determines whether job loss was voluntary or compulsory, which moderates the effect of personality traits, prior job attitudes, need to work, new job level and type, the perceived reason behind ESTEDA'A decision, and receiving informal advanced notice on the perceptions of ESTEDA'A and its fairness. The need to work stands for both psychological and economic needs. The new labels for these factors are presented in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2 Factors affecting leavers' perceptions of ESTEDA'A and its fairness



4.7 Summary of Chapter 4

In this chapter, ESTEDA'A, the context of this study, was explored. ESTEDA'A is a downsizing method that is applied in the Jordanian Civil Service and has two types: compulsory and voluntary ESTEDA'A. ESTEDA'A leavers who were awarded voluntary ESTEDA'A before issuing the JCSB of 1998, received the same outcomes as those who were awarded compulsory ESTEDA'A. However, after issuing the JCSB of 1998, voluntary cases received fewer outcomes than compulsory cases. At the time of awarding ESTEDA'A, all ESTEDA'A leavers are not eligible to be retired, nonetheless, they will be considered retired by the end of their ESTEDA'A periods. The outcomes that retired civil servants receive are better than those which ESTEDA'A leavers receive during their ESTEDA'A periods.

In voluntary downsizing methods that were researched and/or reported in the downsizing literature, which are mainly used in western context, incentives were provided to induce voluntary cases. Whereas such incentives were provided for ESTEDA'A leavers before 1998, however, as both voluntary cases and compulsory cases received the same outcomes (before 1998), it is argued that such outcomes can be regarded as incentives for voluntary cases and as compensations for compulsory cases. In contrast to other voluntary downsizing methods, after 1998, such outcomes (incentives) were no longer provided to voluntary cases of ESTEDA'A leavers. This deviance hinders upgrading the classification of downsizing methods proposed by Greenhalgh *et al.* (1988), which highlight the uniqueness of ESTEDA'A.

Downsizing the public sector entails several social, political, and economic risks (Chiavo-Campo, 1996), which may result in using less severe downsizing methods (Greenhalgh *et al.*, 1988). Due to such potential risks, the Jordanian government, instead of setting a policy of termination or firing employees, used other downsizing methods like early retirement incentives, attrition, not creating new positions (Al-Kayed *et al.* 1999a), and awarding ESTEDA'A (Jordan Times, June 11, 1998).

The World Bank highlighted the need for downsizing the public sectors of developing countries, including Jordan (McCourt, 2001). This emphasis may not represent the forces behind downsizing rather than an initiative to comply with the existing forces. Among these forces is unemployment that brought about over-staffed civil services and hindered downsizing. Another possible forces are privatization and the unqualified civil servants who were appointed in an environment of scarcity of employees.

Some results of a public opinion poll that pertains to democracy in Jordan, showed that there is a general impression shared by 61% of the respondents that Jordan is a country where equality prevails, and by 64% of respondents that Jordan is a country where justice prevails. Nonetheless, 40.5% of respondents believe that the principle of equal opportunities is not implemented in Jordan, and 65% of the respondents feel some form of injustice with respect to perceived justice and equality in distributing the

revenues of national income. Further, 76.7% of respondents reported that they cannot criticize the government publicly.

The 'family allowance' was considered to exemplify the distinction of the Jordanian perspective of justice and equality and how it is different from the western perspective. Specifically, how the main breadwinner is determined and polygamy, shows that fairness can be present upon certain justice rule and simultaneously can be absent according to another justice rule.

Finally, some of the factors that were identified to influence the leavers' perceptions of ESTEDA'A and its fairness were contextualised in respect to this study. These resulting factors were presented in Figure 4.2. The way these factors are captures is discussed in the next chapter, which will deal with the research design of this study.

Chapter Five: Research Aims and Hypotheses

Forming

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 2, highlighted that downsizing outcome at the organisational level is affected indirectly by leavers' perception of downsizing, and argued that job loss and unemployment represent the main effect of downsizing on leavers, and consequently, several factors were identified that influence leavers' attitudes towards and perceptions of, downsizing. As the fairness of downsizing is an important aspect of leavers' attitudes towards and perceptions of, downsizing, in Chapter 3, several factors were identified that influence the assessment of organisational justice of downsizing. In chapter 4, key aspects of ESTEDA'A and its context were explored to show the uniqueness of this downsizing method. Thereby, this study seeks to explore ESTEDA'A leavers' attitudes towards and perceptions of, ESTEDA'A, compare these attitudes and perceptions, and to consider the moderating role of the type of ESTEDA'A in generating these attitudes and perceptions. In this chapter, the aims of this study are stated and the respective hypotheses are formed. Reasons for each hypothesis are explored. Providing an overview of the hypotheses, the research model, which was developed through the previous chapters (2,3, and 4), is presented at the end of this chapter.

5.2 First research aim

The first research aim is to explore the employee attitudes to, and perceptions of, ESTEDA'A.

As no study concerned with downsizing in Jordan was found, this aim is explorative in nature. Thereby, this aim has no associated hypothesis.

Nonetheless, the correlations between employees' attitudes and perceptions will be considered. These attitudes and perceptions are mainly represented by the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A; nonetheless, other

perceptions and attitudes are explained in Section 6.8.4 of the next chapter, research design.

5.3 Second research aim

The second research aim is to compare and contrast the perceptions of employees who have been downsized by the method of ESTEDA'A regarding its organisational justice.

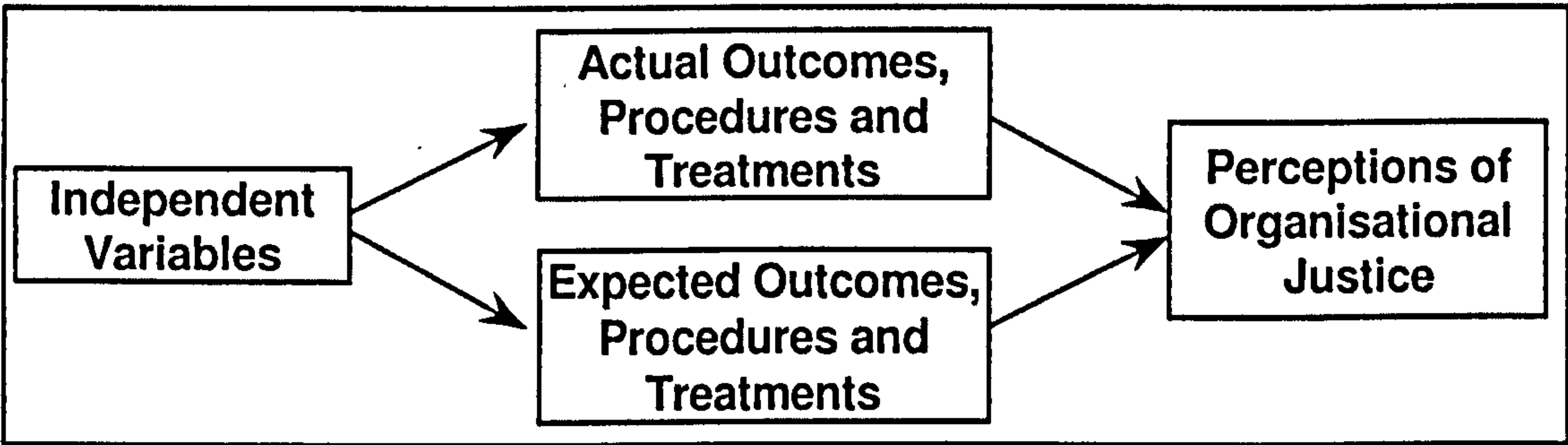
Although leavers' perceptions of several aspects of ESTEDA'A will be assessed, this aim pertains only to the aspect of organisational justice. Other aspects are for descriptive reasons (i.e., to fulfil the first research aim). The literature reviewed in preceding Chapters 2 and 3, highlighted several factors that could potentially influence the attitudes and perceptions of downsized employees. In particular, there is evidence that these factors would influence ESTEDA'A leavers' assessment of organisational justice. Grouped in nine categories, these factors represent the independent variables in developing the hypotheses of this study. These categories are: personality traits, prior job attitudes, need for work, reasons for awarding ESTEDA'A, working after ESTEDA'A, new job level and type, reasons for requesting ESTEDA'A, unemployment rates, and informal advance notice.

In Section 3.5.2, a reconciliation of theories and models that pertains to how people make justice judgements was proposed and a corresponding fairness equation was stated in Figure 3.2. Building on this proposed reconciliation and fairness equation, the following framework is suggested (see Figure 5.1) to illuminate how the independent variables may affect organisational justice judgement. Although this framework represents a general argument to all independent variables of this study, other plausible arguments are suggested for part of these variables.

The way the independent variables affect the denominator part of organisational justice (see Figure 5.1) is reversed in influencing organisational justice judgement (e.g., if an independent variable increases the expected outcome then it will decrease distributive justice score), whereas those that

affect the numerator part of organisational justice will affect organisational justice judgement in a similar way.

Figure 5.1 Framework for the influence of Independent variables on Organisational Justice



The categories working after ESTEDA'A, need to work, new job level, and unemployment rates are mainly outcome oriented rather than procedure or treatment oriented. However, it was argued that they might influence the procedural and interpersonal facets of organisational justice judgement. For example, as discussed in Sections 3.5 and 3.5.2, persons are expected to focus on the procedures when the actual outcomes do not match the desired ones, especially if the alternative means is imaginable (Folger, 1986). Likewise, when persons are concerned about long-term outcomes more than short-term outcomes, the fairness of the procedures would be their focus (Tyler, 1989).

Further, since the literature implied several moderating variables for the independent variables (see Section 3.5.4 for example), it was deemed helpful to clear the meaning of moderating role, especially that some hypotheses may indicate moderating roles. A moderating role for a certain variable means that this variable affects the direction and/or the strength of the relation between an independent variable and a dependant variable (Baron and Kenny, 1986, p. 1174). Many terms are used to describe the moderating role, for example, interaction effect, modifying and buffer (Cleary and Kessler, 1982), to name but a few. Nonetheless, albeit the terms mediator and moderator are used interchangeably in some literature, a more common use of the former term that indicates causally intervening between an independent variable and a dependent variable (Cleary and Kessler, 1982; Baron and Kenny, 1986). Both

moderating variable (moderator) and independent variable can be numerical (e.g., employment commitment) or categorical (e.g., ESTEDA'A type) (Baron and Kenny, 1986).

To identify the presence and type of a moderator, Sharma *et. al.* (1981) suggest a typology of moderating variables. This typology classifies the moderating variables according to two criteria: first, the interaction effect, and second, the relationships of the moderator with the dependent variable and independent variable. When the moderator interacts significantly with the independent variable, then if it has no significant correlation with the dependent variable it is a pure moderator, otherwise it is a quasi moderator. On the other hand, when a moderator does not interact significantly with the independent variable, then if it has no significant correlation with either the dependent variable or the independent variable it might be a homologizer moderator; otherwise, it is not a moderator. To identify a homologizer variable, a subgroup analysis is required by which the sample is divided into subgroups according to the moderator to detect for significant differences in predictive validity of the independent variable across the subgroups. The existence of significant differences in predictive validity of the independent variable across the subgroups means that the moderator is a homologizer moderator; otherwise, it is not a moderator.

The reasoning for the influence of each independent variable on organisational justice is presented in the following sections grouped according to the categories discussed earlier in this section. First, the control variables are delineated.

Control variables

A control variable is an independent variable that can be a demographic or a personal variable, which has a potential influence on the dependent variable, thereby, needs to be controlled to test the true influence of other independent variables on the dependent variable (Cresswell, 2003). In this study, the effects of gender and age (control variables) are controlled when testing

hypotheses via multiple regressions, especially because their possible effect on organisational justice (see Sections 3.5.4 and 2.7.3).

5.3.1 Personality traits

This category subsumes negative and positive affectivities and locus of control, which are discussed in the following two sections.

(I) Negative affectivity and positive affectivity

As discussed in Section 3.5.4, individuals with high negative affectivity experience dissatisfaction across situations. This dispositional dissatisfaction would be reflected in their assessments of organisational justice. Specifically, compared to their counterpart, individuals with high negative affectivity are expected to be less satisfied with actual outcomes, procedures, and treatments, perceive them as less than the expected, and consequently report lower organisational justice scores. In contrast, as negative affectivity has two moderating patterns (discussed earlier in Section 3.5.4), individuals with high negative affectivity may expect (as they used to receive) fewer outcomes, procedures, and treatments than individuals with low negative affectivity, and consequently report higher organisational justice scores.

It is noteworthy that feeling of resentment, anger, dissatisfaction and upset that were reported by the subjects of the experiment of Folger *et. al.* (1983) as the dependent variables, are expected to be reported by high-negative affectivity individuals even in the absence of an objective cause. This may indicate the existence of the role of negative affectivity trait in assessing organisational justice. Further, as procedural justice subsumes an interpersonal aspect (the treatment part of fairness equation), the effect of negative affectivity trait on the justice judgement is expected to be manifested more in procedural justice scores than distributive justice scores.

On the other hand, as discussed in Section 3.5.4, since individuals with high positive affectivity are used to higher levels of satisfaction compared to their counterparts, it is anticipated that they are more likely to have higher levels of expected outcomes, procedures, and treatments, and consequently report

lower organisational justice scores. In contrast, as positive affectivity has two moderating patterns, individuals with high positive affectivity may assess the actual outcomes, procedures, and treatments more positive than individuals with low positive affectivity may, and consequently report higher organisational justice scores.

(II) Locus of control

As discussed in Section 3.5.4, different theories implied different roles for each dimension of locus of control (Reid and Ware, 1974), thereby, each dimension is expected to have different influence on organisational justice judgement. However, since decision-control and process-control were associated with procedural justice (see Section 3.5.2), it is not surprising to find that the influence of locus of control on organisational justice is manifested more on procedural justice than on distributive justice.

First, regarding chance locus of control, Rotter (1966) claims that belief in luck implies passivity. Likewise, as proposed by Folger and Cropanzano (1998), personal type of unfairness cases involves experiencing undeserved misfortune not caused by another party. People with high chance locus of control perceive their experienced unfairness to be within the personal type of unfairness, i.e., no one can be held responsible for what they receive and encounter. Thereby, chance locus of control is anticipated not to influence organisational justice judgement.

Second, since people with high internal locus of control perceive high control over what they receive (actual outcomes, procedures, and treatments), they, according to Cognitive Dissonance Theory (see Section 3.5.4), are more likely to use dissonance reduction for what they receive or encounter than their counterparts would do. Consequently, they would enhance the assessment of the actual outcomes, procedures, and treatments and report higher organisational justice scores. Likewise, Adams (1965) suggests that the receiver might place more value on the actual outcomes as a method to reduce inequity. Further, according to Egoistic Relative Deprivation theory (see Section 3.5.2), people with high internal locus of control would be less

likely to blame someone else for what they receive and consequently report higher organisational justice scores than their counterparts would do.

Third, people with high powerful-others locus of control perceive that powerful others have high control over what they receive or encounter. External locus of control was found to be significantly correlated with perceived financial worries and problems associated with unemployment (Payne and Hartley, 1987). Hence, people with high powerful-others locus of control are expected to enhance the negativity of what they receive and encounter, specially that someone else is responsible, and consequently, perceive the actual outcome more negative and report lower organisational justice scores than their counterparts would do.

Since procedural justice construct implies assigning blame (or responsibility) to someone (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998), and as process control and decision control are conceptually related to internal locus of control and powerful-others locus of control, hence the influence of internal locus of control and powerful-others locus of control is expected to be manifested on procedural justice judgement more than distributive justice judgement.

5.3.2 Prior job attitudes

This category subsumes two independent variables: prior organisational commitment and prior job satisfaction. Although these variables have similar reasons for influencing organisational justice, other possible reasons led to discussing them separately.

(I) Prior organisational commitment

As discussed in Section 3.5.4, prior organisational commitment reflects the consistency in the values of the individual and the organisation, and implies a wish to stay in the organisation (Porter *et. al.*, 1974), which depends upon the fairness of the organisation authority (Tyler, 1989). Since Lind and Tyler (1988) argue that attitudes towards organisations have mutual influences (see Section 3.5.2), individuals with high prior organisational commitment, compared to their counterparts, would expect higher levels of outcomes,

procedures, and treatments from their organisations. These expectations would bring about lower organisational justice scores for individuals with high prior organisational commitment than those for their counterparts. In contrast, as prior organisational commitment may influence other attitudes, high prior organisational commitment would bring about positive organisational justice assessment.

(II) Prior job satisfaction

The claim of Lind and Tyler (1988) that attitudes towards organisations have mutual influences implies consistency in these attitudes. Consequently, individuals with high prior job satisfaction would expect high levels of outcomes, procedures, and treatments and report lower organisational justice scores than their counterparts would do. In contrast, based on the reciprocal influences, high prior job satisfaction would bring about positive organisational justice assessment.

As discussed in Section 3.5.3, distributive justice judgement pertains to specific situations or outcomes, while both procedural justice judgement and attitudes towards organisations have a level of generality with respect to time (Lind and Tyler, 1988). Hence, it is anticipated that the influence of prior organisational commitment and prior job satisfaction on organisational justice is manifested more in the relations with procedural justice than the relations with distributive justice.

5.3.3 Need to work

Leaving Jordanian Civil Services when the ESTEDA'A period starts, implies that some of the needs that were fulfilled by being a civil servant may require a new source to be fulfilled as a result of having ESTEDA'A. The economic and psychological needs to have a job, therefore, can be among the inputs (expected) in assessing organisational justice. Although economic and psychological needs are correlated (Jackson and Warr, 1984), they represent different aspects of the need to work.

(I) Economic need to work

As discussed in Section 2.7.3, the economic need to work increases the severity of job loss. The effect of economic need to work was implied in findings pertaining to being a main breadwinner (MBW) (Brockner *et. al.*, 1992b), participation in family income (Cohn, 1978) and the number of financial dependents (Spreitzer and Mishra, 2002). The more an individual needs to work the more he/she expects in term of outcomes, procedures, and treatments and the lower his/her organisational justice assessment would be.

(II) Psychological need to work

As discussed in Section 2.7.3, employment commitment represents the psychological aspect of employment (Nordenmark, 1999), which is correlated with severity of unemployment and job loss. The more a need is stressing, the more the expected levels of outcomes, procedures, and treatments are and the lower the organisational justice judgement would be. Nonetheless, as need to work (economic and psychological) is affected by the outcome of job loss; the impact of it is expected to stronger on distributive justice.

5.3.4 Reason for awarding ESTEDA'A

In Section 3.5.4, the reasons behind downsizing were grouped into three reasons: leaver's needs, organisational needs, leaver's performance. As discussed in Section 4.3.1, there is some evidence that ESTEDA'A was associated with privatisation. This may indicate that in such cases organisational needs were the reason for awarding ESTEDA'A. In some cases, especially within voluntary cases, the needs of ESTEDA'A leavers can be the reason for awarding ESTEDA'A, whereas in other cases, the performance of the ESTEDA'A leaver can be the reason. However, within the compulsory cases, some employees play parts in bringing about their job loss (Kessler, *et. al.*, 1988), for example through their prior performance. The perceived reason for awarding ESTEDA'A may represent the level of justification for the ESTEDA'A decision, which, as discussed in Section 3.5.4, moderates the hostile feelings towards the decision maker (Folger and Martin, 1986). High levels of justification may mitigate the hostile feelings regardless

of the level of outcomes (Cropanzano and Folger, 1989). On the other hand, a low level of justification, which can be a perceived bad reason for awarding ESTEDA'A, would engender greater discontent for individuals with high-referent than for individuals with low-referent (Folger *et. al.*, 1983a).

According to Leventhal's (1976) (see Section 3.5.4) classification of the techniques that are used to manipulate recipients' perception of allocation outcomes, the reasons behind awarding ESTEDA'A as perceived by the respondents are within the techniques that affect recipients' perception of the nature and causes of the allocation decision. Further, considered as causal accounts; these reasons aim at minimising responsibility of the decision maker (Bies, 1987). Thereby, it is anticipated that the reason for awarding ESTEDA'A as perceived by ESTEDA'A leavers would influence the assessment of the actual procedures and consequently affect organisational justice judgement. Specifically, organisational need and individual's need, as a reason for awarding ESTEDA'A, are anticipated to be a high level of justification and consequently positively affects organisational justice judgement. This impact is expected to be manifested more on procedural justice, as justification aims at minimising responsibility of the decision maker (Bies, 1987).

Therefore, the hypothesis that pertains to the foregoing independent variables is as follows:

Hypothesis 1(a):

After controlling for age and gender, the independent variables (personality traits, prior attitudes, need to work, and the reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A) influence the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

5.3.5 Working after ESTEDA'A

As discussed in Section 2.7.3, there is evidence that re-employment may alleviate the negative psychological effects of unemployment (Warr *et. al.*, 1988). In addition, working after ESTEDA'A can be regarded as part of

ESTEDA'A outcome, which affects judging ESTEDA'A as high or low referent outcome (see Section 3.5.2). Since ESTEDA'A leavers are considered retired by the end of ESTEDA'A period (see Section 4.2), this may imply that some of them may not want to work after ESTEDA'A or after retirement. Therefore, the positive effect of working after ESTEDA'A is anticipated to be provisional upon wanting to work after ESTEDA'A.

The interaction of working after ESTEDA'A and wanting to work after ESTEDA'A produces four possibilities. First, an ESTEDA'A leaver wanted to work and worked, which entails that ESTEDA'A may represent a low referent outcome. Second, an ESTEDA'A leaver did not want to work and did not work, which entails that s/he received what s/he wanted; hence, ESTEDA'A may represent a low referent outcome. Third, an ESTEDA'A leaver wanted to work but did not work, then staying in JCS is better than ESTEDA'A and hence ESTEDA'A represents a high referent outcome. Fourth, an ESTEDA'A leaver did not want to work but worked, which entails that s/he did not receive what s/he wanted; hence, ESTEDA'A may represent a high referent outcome. In the first two possibilities, ESTEDA'A may represent a low referent outcome, which can imply a positive effect of the variable 'working after ESTEDA'A'. On the other hand, in the last two possibilities, ESTEDA'A may represent a high referent outcome, which can indicate a negative effect of the variable 'working after ESTEDA'A'. These effects are rendered in the assessments of the actual outcomes, procedures, and treatments and consequently on organisational justice judgements. It is noteworthy that previous study were concerned with one variable, 'working after job loss', considering that all respondents wanted to work. Therefore, two of the four possibilities are explored in this study for the first time. These two possibilities are concerned with leavers who did not want to work.

Therefore it was hypothesized the following:

Hypothesis 1(b):

The interaction of wanting to work after ESTEDA'A and working after ESTEDA'A influences the perceived organisational justice (distributive justice and procedural justice).

5.3.6 New job level

As discussed in Section 2.7.3, the alleviating effect of re-employment on unemployment severity can be provisional upon the level of the new job compared to the previous one (Burke, 1986). The level of the new job appears to be a part of the actual outcomes; nonetheless, it may represent the likelihood of outcome amelioration discussed in Section 3.5.2. In addition, it represents the qualitative dimension of job security (Hellgren *et. al.*, 1999). Thereby, the higher the new job level the higher the perceived outcome is, and the higher the organisational justice assessment would be.

Therefore, the hypothesis for this argument is as follows:

Hypothesis 1(c):

Within those who worked after ESTEDA'A, after controlling for age and gender the new job level and new job type influence the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

5.3.7 Reason for requesting ESTEDA'A

As discussed in Section 4.2, ESTEDA'A can be awarded compulsorily and voluntarily. Consequently, voluntary cases may vary in their reasons for requesting ESTEDA'A, which represent their needs for ESTEDA'A. Since a need can be regarded as input in the fairness formula (see Figures 3.1 and 5.1), hence it would influence the assessment of the expected outcomes, procedures, and treatments and consequently affect organisational justice judgement. Further, as discussed in Section 2.7.3, it is plausible to deem that voluntary cases expected that actual ESTEDA'A outcomes would fit their needs and consequently they requested ESTEDA'A. Thereby, reasons with positive effects on organisational justice imply a good fit between the expected and the actual, and vice versa for reasons with negative effects.

The corresponding hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 1(d):

Within voluntary cases, after controlling for age and gender, the reason behind requesting ESTEDA'A influence the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

5.3.8 Unemployment rates

As discussed in Section 2.7.3, unemployment rates are likely to mediate the effect of unemployment, where unemployed individual use high unemployment rates as an external attribution for his/her unemployment, which alleviates the effect of unemployment. Another plausible argument is that 'unemployment rates' represents the chance of not having a job, which hinders the effect of re-employment. Hence, 'unemployment rates' represents the level of *unlikelihood* of outcome amelioration, which negatively affects the assessment of the actual outcomes, procedures, and treatments. Further, for ESTEDA'A leavers who were re-employed, 'unemployment rates' represents how lucky they were to find a job after ESTEDA'A, which positively affects the assessment of the actual outcomes, procedures, and treatments.

Therefore, the interaction of 'unemployment rates' and working after ESTEDA'A influences the organisational justice judgement, where unemployment rates has a positive effect of organisational justice for those who were re-employed and a negative effect on organisational justice for those who were not re-employed. As re-employment is associated with the outcome of downsizing, the effect of 'unemployment rates' is expected to be manifested on distributive justice rather on procedural justice.

Hypothesis 1(e):

After controlling for age and gender, whether an ESTEDA'A leaver worked after ESTEDA'A or not moderates the influence of unemployment rate on the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

5.3.9 Informal advance notice

Receiving informal advance notice implies having good relations with management and encountering good treatment through ESTEDA'A process. As discussed in Section (3.5.2) each member status in the group affects his/her assessment of that group and consequently the assessment of its procedures (Lind and Tyler, 1988). Arguing that receiving informal advance notice reflects a good status in the group, hence, it would enhance organisational justice judgement and particularly procedural justice. In addition, since the formal advance notice mitigates unemployment specially by reducing its duration (Addison and Portugal, 1987), informal advance notice is useful apparently, if it was received before the formal notice, and hence it provides extra time before the decision takes effect. This extra time enhances the perceived fairness of the procedures, simultaneously; in compulsory cases, it may increase the possibility to find a job before leaving and consequently the fairness of the outcome. On the other hand, it can be argued that since in voluntary cases individuals choose to be awarded ESTEDA'A, informal advance notice may not affect the possibility to find a new job; nonetheless, it may reflect group status.

Thereby, the respective hypothesis was formulated as follows:

Hypothesis 1(f):

Within those who worked after ESTEDA'A, after controlling for age and gender, new job level, new job type, change in family income, and having a job before leaving, whether an ESTEDA'A leaver received an informal advance notice or not influence the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

Further, since informal advance notice can reflect group status, as well as prior job attitudes (see Section 5.3.2), then it can be argued that informal advance notice may moderate the influence of prior attitudes on organisational justice. Specifically, receiving informal advance notice can be perceived as consistent with high prior attitudes, i.e., individuals with high prior organisational commitment and/or prior job satisfaction would perceive

informal advance notice to be consistent with their attitudes which would enhance the positive effect of these attitudes on organisational justice.

Therefore it is hypothesized the following:

Hypothesis 1(g):

After controlling for age and gender, whether an ESTEDA'A leaver received an informal advance notice or not moderates the influence of prior job attitudes on the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

5.4 Third research aim

The third research aim is to consider the moderating role of ESTEDA'A type (voluntary and compulsory) in reducing negative attitudes towards downsizing.

5.4.1 ESTEDA'A types

Giving that ESTEDA'A can be implemented compulsorily and voluntarily, ESTEDA'A leavers subsume two groups: those who had control over ESTEDA'A decision (voluntary cases) and those who had more rewards or outcomes (compulsory cases), and both groups know exactly what the other group will receive. However, voluntary cases who requested ESTEDA'A before issuing the JCSB of 1998 had control over the decision of ESTEDA'A as well as rewards (see Section 4.2). Thereby, the potential moderating role of ESTEDA'A comes from its variety.

It is noteworthy that since there is no compulsory case who had decision-control, which is self-evident¹⁰, a 2 X 2 factor design for decision-control and reward is not achievable. Consequently, ESTEDA'A type can be considered as a dichotomous variable subsuming compulsory ESTEDA'A and voluntary

¹⁰ It is important to acknowledge that there might be some exception where a compulsory case has experienced decision control. Specifically, one respondent told the researcher, when he was contacted to participate, that he wanted to apply for a voluntary ESTEDA'A but his supervisor suggested to award him a compulsory ESTEDA'A in order to get more rewards.

ESTEDA'A. Alternatively, considering that voluntary cases received rewards in, and before, 1998 (see Section 4.2), ESTEDA'A can be categorized into three types: compulsory ESTEDA'A, induced voluntary ESTEDA'A (cases in, and before, 1998), and non-induced voluntary ESTEDA'A. Another possible categorization is to consider that compulsory cases in, and before, 1998 had the same rewards as voluntary cases, but had no decision control, yielding four ESTEDA'A types: high-referent compulsory ESTEDA'A (in, and before, 1998), compulsory ESTEDA'A, induced voluntary ESTEDA'A (in, and before, 1998), and non-induced voluntary ESTEDA'A. As will be explained in Chapter 6 (Section 6.8.3), these three categorizing methods are three ways to measure the variable 'ESTEDA'A type'. Nonetheless, as will be reported later in Chapter 7 (Section 7.9.1), for testing the moderating role of ESTEDA'A type, ESTEDA'A type is considered as a dichotomous, especially because other categorizing did not show any significant moderating role for ESTEDA'A type except in one instance.

To analyse the moderating role of 'ESTEDA'A type', the differences across ESTEDA'A types is explored. First, since all ESTEDA'A leavers knew about the two types of ESTEDA'A and were eligible to be voluntary cases; then it can be argued that voluntary cases can be deemed as self-decision-making while compulsory cases can be deemed as other-decision-making (see Section 3.5.4). Second, accepting that a person who is responsible for determining the level of outcomes that s/he will receive 'cannot fault someone else on procedural grounds' (Cropanzano and Folger, 1989, p. 294), it can be argued that voluntary cases will perceive the procedures fairer than compulsory cases will do. Third, since voluntary cases chose their outcomes, they are more likely to use dissonance reduction, whereas compulsory cases are primarily concerned with procedures and procedural justice. Fourth, unlike compulsory cases, voluntary cases could plan for the consequences of requesting ESTEDA'A. Since the formal advance notice can reduce unemployment duration (Addison and Portugal, 1987), preparation of voluntary cases for ESTEDA'A may alleviate the negativity of job loss. Finally, according to group value model discussed in Section (3.5.2), a person's perceived status as a member of a group affects his/her assessment of that

group and consequently the assessment of its procedures (Lind and Tyler, 1988). Therefore, being forced to leave (such as compulsory cases) negatively affects the perceived group status, this effect would be demonstrated on organisational justice judgement.

5.4.2 Personality traits and ESTEDA'A types

As discussed in Section 3.5.4, Avery (2003) found that extraversion (positive affectivity) significantly predicted the value of voice, which was not the case for neuroticism (negative affectivity) and locus of control. This implies that compulsory cases with high positive affectivity would suffer more from being forced to leave than their counterpart, whereas voluntary cases with high positive affectivity would be more satisfied with their choice (decision control) than their counterpart.

As discussed in Section 3.5.4 individuals with high negative affectivity experience negative affectivity in the absence of an objective reason, therefore it can be concluded that the effect of negative affectivity trait is more obvious in the absence of an objective reason. Since voluntary cases had choice and were able to plan for leaving their jobs, it can be assumed that they are less likely to have an objective reason to experience negative affectivities than compulsory cases. Further, within voluntary cases, those who requested ESTEDA'A before 1999 had more rewards than those who requested ESTEDA'A in or after 1999, therefore, the former are less likely to have an objective reason to express negative affectivities than the latter.

Regarding locus of control, since individuals with high internal locus of control perceive that they are responsible for what they receive, they are expected to seek to have an active role (Kren, 1992) unlike those with high powerful-others locus of control. Further, individuals with high internal locus of control are more likely to exert their internal locus of control if they were voluntary cases than if they were compulsory cases. In other words, individuals with high internal locus of control find being awarded voluntary ESTEDA'A to be consistent with their internal locus of control trait unlike being awarded

compulsory ESTEDA'A. Therefore, the positive effect of internal locus of control on organisational justice is expected to be stronger in voluntary cases.

On the other hand, individuals with high powerful-others locus of control are more likely to exert their powerful-others locus of control if they were compulsory cases than if they were voluntary cases. In other words, individuals with high powerful-others locus of control find being awarded compulsory ESTEDA'A to be consistent with their powerful-others locus of control trait unlike being voluntary cases. Thereby, the negative effect of powerful-others locus of control on organisational justice is expected to be stronger in compulsory cases.

5.4.3 Prior job attitudes and ESTEDA'A types

As discussed in Section 3.5.4, prior organisational commitment implies a wish to stay in the organisation, however, being forced to leave contradicts this wish. Therefore, it is anticipated that prior organisational commitment would have a positive effect on organisational justice for voluntary cases, whereas it would have a negative effect for compulsory cases.

Regarding prior job satisfaction, as discussed in Section 3.5.4, since attitudes toward the organisation mutually affect each other, individual with high prior job satisfaction would not expect to be forced to leave. Therefore, it is anticipated that compulsory cases with high prior job satisfaction would perceive being forced to leave as inconsistent with their prior attitudes, which brings about a negative influence on organisational justice. Further, a voluntary leaver with low prior job satisfaction is expected to be happier to leave compared to one with high prior job satisfaction. Conversely, a compulsory leaver with high prior job satisfaction is expected to experience more discontent compared to a voluntary leaver with high prior job satisfaction.

5.4.4 Need to work and ESTEDA'A types

Since voluntary cases could plan for the consequences of requesting ESTEDA'A, the stress of the needs (psychological and economic) to work are

likely to be less on voluntary cases than on compulsory cases. Therefore, the negative effect of need to work on organisational justice would be stronger for compulsory cases than for voluntary cases.

5.4.5 Reason for awarding ESTEDA'A and ESTEDA'A types

Since the perceived reason for awarding ESTEDA'A can be regarded as a perceived justification for ESTEDA'A decision (see Section 5.3.4), it can be argued that compulsory cases expect this justification more than voluntary cases. Therefore, the positive effect of the reasons for awarding ESTEDA'A would be stronger for compulsory cases than for voluntary cases.

5.4.6 Working after ESTEDA'A and ESTEDA'A types

As discussed in Section 5.3.5, there are four possibilities for the interaction between wanting to work after ESTEDA'A and working after ESTEDA'A. Nonetheless, since voluntary cases are considered as self-decision-maker, compared to compulsory cases they are more likely to use dissonance reduction that can hinder the negative effect of the last two possibilities (wanted to work but did not work and did not want to work but worked). Further, unlike compulsory cases, voluntary cases are expected to have planned for the consequences of their ESTEDA'A request. Therefore, in voluntary cases, the effect of wanting to work after ESTEDA'A and working after ESTEDA'A interaction is expected to be weaker in the four possibilities.

5.4.7 Informal advance notice and ESTEDA'A types

Earlier in Section 5.3.9, it was argued that the effect of the extra time provided by informal advance notice can be useful probably only in compulsory cases, nonetheless, the effect of group status can influence both compulsory cases and voluntary cases. Since extra time to find a job pertains to outcomes while group status pertains to procedures and treatments, it can be claimed that the effect of informal advance notice on organisational justice would exist on distributive justice for compulsory cases, whereas on procedural justice would exist for both compulsory cases and voluntary cases.

For the moderating role of ESTEDA'A types, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 2(a):

After controlling for age and gender, ESTEDA'A type moderates the influences of the independent variables (negative affectivity, positive affectivity, internal locus of control, powerful-others locus of control, chance locus of control, prior organisational commitment, prior job satisfaction, employment commitment, participation in family income, number of dependents, and new job level) on the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

Hypothesis 2(b):

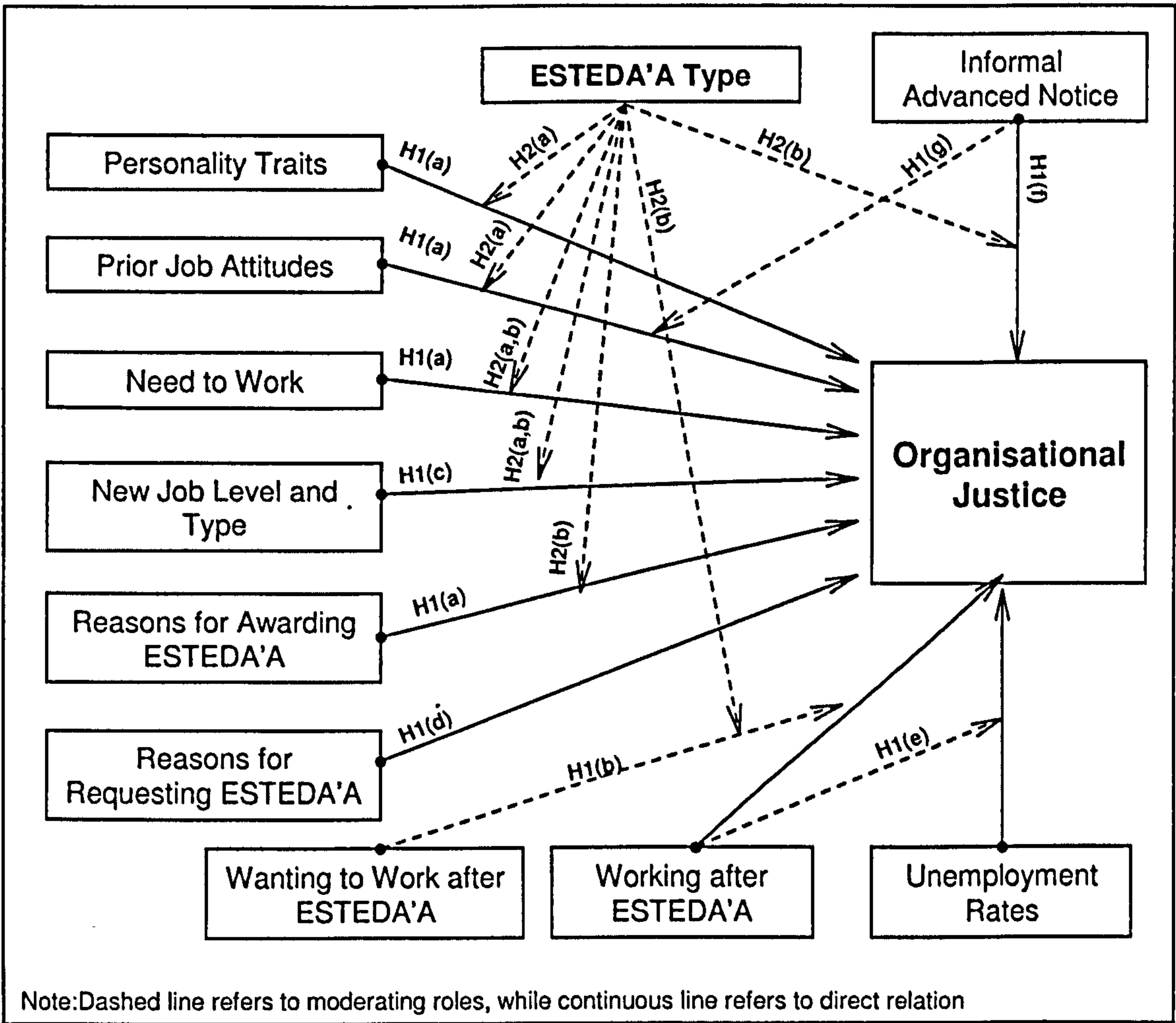
ESTEDA'A type moderates the influence of the independent variables (being main breadwinner, reasons for awarding ESTEDA'A, the interaction of wanting to work after ESTEDA'A and working after ESTEDA'A, new job type, informal advance notice) on the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

It is noteworthy that although in Chapter 7 hypothesis 2(a) and hypothesis 2(b) are tested for each independent variable separately, these relationships were formed into two hypotheses; otherwise, it will result in 19 sub-hypotheses (as will be seen in Chapter 7). The two hypotheses were formed according to the statistical method used for testing each hypothesis.

5.5 Research model

After delineating the aims of this study and forming the respective hypotheses, an overview of the hypotheses is presented in Figure 5.2. As noted in Figure 5.2, the continuous lines indicate direct influences, whereas dashed lines indicate moderating roles.

Figure 5.2 Research model and hypotheses



5.6 Summary of Chapter 5

Three research aims were presented and their corresponding hypotheses were formed. The first research aim, which has no relevant hypothesis, was to explore the employee attitudes to, and perceptions of, ESTEDA'A. The second research aim, which has seven sub-hypotheses, was to compare and contrast the attitudes and perceptions of employees who have been downsized by the method of ESTEDA'A. The sub-hypotheses relevant to the second aim were:

- Hypothesis 1(a): After controlling for age and gender, the independent variables (personality traits, prior attitudes, need to work, and the reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A) influence the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).
- Hypothesis 1(b): The interaction of wanting to work after ESTEDA'A and working after ESTEDA'A influences the perceived organisational justice (distributive justice and procedural justice).
- Hypothesis 1(c): Within those who worked after ESTEDA'A, after controlling for age and gender the new job level and new job type influence the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).
- Hypothesis 1(d): Within voluntary cases, after controlling for age and gender, the reason behind requesting ESTEDA'A influence the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).
- Hypothesis 1 (e): After controlling for age and gender, whether an ESTEDA'A leaver worked after ESTEDA'A or not moderates the influence of unemployment rate on the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).
- Hypothesis 1(f): Within those who worked after ESTEDA'A, after controlling for age and gender, new job level, new job type, change in family income, and having a job before leaving, whether an ESTEDA'A leaver received an informal advance notice or not influence the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

Hypothesis 1(g): After controlling for age and gender, whether an ESTEDA'A leaver received an informal advance notice or not moderates the influence of prior job attitudes on the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

The third aim of this study was to consider the effect of ESTEDA'A type (voluntary and compulsory) in reducing negative attitudes towards downsizing. This research aim has the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2(a): After controlling for age and gender, ESTEDA'A type moderates the influences of the independent variables (negative affectivity, positive affectivity, internal locus of control, powerful-others locus of control, chance locus of control, prior organisational commitment, prior job satisfaction, employment commitment, participation in family income, number of dependents, and new job level) on the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

Hypothesis 2(b): ESTEDA'A type moderates the influence of the independent variables (being main breadwinner, reasons for awarding ESTEDA'A, the interaction of wanting to work after ESTEDA'A and working after ESTEDA'A, new job type, informal advance notice) on the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

The research model that illustrates these hypotheses was also presented.

Chapter Six: Research Design

6.1 Introduction

Hitherto, in the previous Chapters the themes, context, research aims, and hypotheses of this study have been discussed. In this chapter, the research design of this study, through which research aims will be addressed and their relevant hypotheses will be tested, is delineated through several sectors. The first sector outlines the research philosophy adopted in this study. For this purpose, a review of the two main research philosophies (positivism and constructivism) and their ontological, epistemological, and axiological implications is presented.

The second sector pertains to deciding research approach of this study, which is done after highlighting the differences between deduction and induction approaches. The third sector involves deciding research strategy that includes enquiry purpose, time horizon, and data collection method. In the fourth sector, the population of this study is delineated and the sampling techniques are explained.

The fifth sector deals with the development of the research questionnaire, and the use of secondary data. The final sector concerns the way this study will go about data analysis and the used methods of data analysis.

6.2 Research philosophy

Reviewing research philosophies can help to elucidate research designs, which may facilitate identifying and choosing (probably creating) the most appropriate one (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). In social and behavioural sciences, there are two contrasting views that represent the two poles of paradigms debate: positivist/empiricist and constructivist/phenomenological (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). Positivism, which is sometimes called scientific method, quantitative research, or empirical science, 'reflects a deterministic philosophy in which

causes probably determine effects or outcomes' (Creswell, 2003, p. 7). Positivists intend to reduce research problems into small set of factors that constitute hypotheses (Creswell, 2003; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). On the other hand, constructionists, who are often called interpretivists or qualitative researchers, seek understanding of the world that they live by developing varied and multiple subjective meanings of their experiences, which leads them to look for complexity of views rather than seeking ideas reduction (Creswell, 2003).

A third view, which is based on 'the use of whatever philosophical and/or methodological approach works for the particular research problem under study', is labelled 'pragmatism' (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998, p. 5). Nonetheless, although pragmatists argue that mixing philosophies and methods may bring about more perspectives on the phenomena being researched, others claim that appropriateness of this mixing strategy is debatable (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002).

To arrive to the most appropriate research design, the two main views (positivism and constructivism) are explored with respect to their implied ontology, epistemology, axiology, and methods. A summary of this exploration is presented in Table 6.1.

The assumptions that one makes about the nature of reality (ontology), which were the starting point for most of the paradigm debates (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002), are one of the deferent aspects of the philosophical views (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). In social sciences, there are three main ontological positions: representationalism, relativism, and nominalism (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002).

Truth, for representationalists, is determined by connection between observations and phenomena, and it is established via verification of prediction, where facts are concrete (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). Relativists assume that what comprises the truth may vary across observers, places, and times (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). Different observers can have different viewpoints, thereby truth requires consensus between different viewpoints, and consequently, what is considered as facts is dependant on observers' viewpoints (Easterby-Smith *et al.*,

2002). For nominalists, it is names and labels that people attach to their experiences and events, and who establish these names and labels, which are crucial (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). Therefore, truth is dependant on who establishes it, and facts are all human creations (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). Positivism is associated with representationalism, whereas social constructionism is associated with nominalism. In social sciences, relativism is an ontological and epistemological position that comes between positivism and social constructionism (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002).

The 'general set of assumptions about the best ways of inquiring into the nature of the world' is termed 'epistemology', which is linked to the ontological assumptions (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002, p. 31). For positivist position, it is assumed that there is a single reality (ontology), which exists independently of the observer; therefore, researcher's job is only to identify this pre-existing reality, which is achieved via the design of experiments that include measuring factors precisely to test pre-determined hypotheses (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). Although relativists adopt this epistemological assumption, they assume that it is difficult to access reality directly, therefore, they use triangulation of methods and survey viewpoints and experiences of large samples of individuals (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). For relativist, it is a matter of probability that the underlying situation can be indicated through the collected viewpoints and experiences (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). On the other hand, constructionists assume that there are multiple realities (ontology), which people create to make sense of what they experience (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). The observers, in this position, aim to understand how people invent these realities, with much attention is given to languages and conversations between people through their sense-making process (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). For constructionists, the observers can never separated from the process of sense making, and theories that apply to people must be relevant to them (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002).

Another deferent aspect of research philosophy is axiology, which indicates the 'role of values in inquiry' (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998, p. 7). For positivists,

choosing what to study and how to study it should be done in a value free manner, i.e., by the use of objective criteria (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). On other hand, for the constructionist, research inquiry is mainly driven by human interest, i.e., it is determined by human beliefs and values (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002).

Other characteristics are considered associated with research philosophy may include research approaches and strategies (discussed in Sections 6.3 and 6.4 respectively). For example, positivists use deductive logic (testing theory), where they argue from general (priori theory or hypotheses) to particular (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). Constructivists use inductive logic (generating theory), where they gather rich data to argue from particular (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002).

Table 6.1 A comparison of the two main philosophical views positivism and constructivism

	Positivism/ Empiricism	Constructivism/ Phenomenology
Ontology: nature of reality	There is a single reality, which is external and objective	There are multiple realities, which are socially constructed and subjective
Epistemology: the relationship of the knower to the known	The knower and the known are independent, and knowledge is based on external and objective realities	The knower and the known are inseparable
Axiology: the role of values in inquiry	The inquiry is value-free	The inquiry is value-bound
Generalisation	Time- and context-free generalisations are possible, which is done through statistical probability	Time- and context-free generalisation are mot possible
Causal linkage	There are real causes that are temporal precedent to or simultaneous with effect	It is impossible to distinguish causes from effects
Deductive/inductive logic	Arguing from the general to the particular with priori hypotheses or theory	Arguing from the particular to the general
Concepts	Need to be operationalised in a way that enables measuring facts quantitatively	Should incorporate stakeholder perspective
Units of analysis	Should be reduced to the simplest term	May include the complexity of the whole situation

Developed from: Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2002), Saunders *et al.* (2007), and Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998).

The previous comparisons were pertaining to the main philosophical views. The third view, pragmatism, is not committed to any of the main views, where individual researchers have a freedom of choice (Creswell, 2003). Pragmatists focus on 'what' and 'how' to research based on the intended consequences, which constitute their rationale for mixing, but not about reality and laws of nature (Creswell, 2003).

After exploring the main differences between positivism and constructionism, and considering the possibility of mixing these views (adopting pragmatism), positivism was adopted in this study. Specifically, this study seeks the objective, external, and pre-existing reality in a way that the researcher and what is researched are independents and in a value-free manner. Although in respect to the ontological, epistemological, and axiological concerns, research philosophy is determined upon the researchers' perspective and beliefs, other rationales for adopting a certain philosophy will arise when considering research approach and strategy. For example, adopting pragmatism appears to be more related to deciding on research approach and strategy. Especially, these views (philosophies) 'are 'better' at doing different things' (Saunders *et al.*, 2007, p. 85).

6.3 Research approach

The research approach pertains to deciding at what points to concentrate on the literature versus the data (Punch, 2005). Factors involved in choosing research approach may include research aims, how much is known about the research problem, how well developed the relevant literature, how much knowledge the researcher already has (Punch, 2005). In other words, choosing the most appropriate research approach is dependent on the extent to which the relevant theory is clear at the start of the research (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). Choosing to start with theory or with data implies deciding to use deductive or inductive logic, respectively, which represents the split between positivism and constructionism (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002).

The deductive approach, which owes more to positivism, 'involves the development of a theory that is subject to a rigorous test' (Saunders *et al.*, 2007, p. 117). Starting with theory provides initial clarity about what is to be investigated (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). Deduction involves deducing a hypothesis from theory, expressing the hypothesis in away that entails how the variables will be measured, testing the hypothesis, and examining the outcome of inquiry (Robson, 1993). On the other hand, the inductive approach, which is associated more with constructionism, involves developing a theory by looking at the same event in different situations (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002), i.e., building a theory that follows the data (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). Starting with data, for example conducting a grounded theory research, maintains flexibility and can provide explanations and insights (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). In 'grounded theory' research, a general abstract theory is derived of an event or a process grounded in the views of participants in that research (Creswell, 2003). In other words, reviewing literature is deliberately delayed to allow for the emerging of theory that is grounded in the data (Punch, 2005).

In this study, the start was with the theory, especially because although ESTEDA'A as a method of downsizing has not been researched, there are several theories (or hypotheses) regarding downsizing and its fairness that can be tested in the context of ESTEDA'A (see Chapter 5 the development of the research hypotheses). The first research aim of this study is explorative, which can be fulfilled in an inductive and/or deductive way. At an early stage of this research, there were preliminary interviews to explore the context of ESTEDA'A (reported in this chapter). Nonetheless, starting with data lack initial clarity and needs substantially more time (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002), which is an important limitation for this study. Further, the second and third research aims imply causal relationships, which were manifested in their corresponding hypotheses. This emphasises the need for starting with theory and adopting deduction, and hence, positivism.

Consequently, certain characteristics should be maintained in this study, which would affect choosing research strategy. For example, collection of quantitative data, operationalised concepts, highly structured methodology that facilitates replication, and generalisation (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002; Saunders *et al.*, 2007).

6.4 Research strategy

Research strategy is a general plan that delineates how the research aims will be achieved, the sources of data, and the inevitable constraints (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). There are several research strategies that, as many researchers agree, by no means can be organised hierarchically, each of which has weaknesses and strengths and does a particular job (Hakim, 2000). At this stage of research design, the options of research strategies can be seen as limited by the chosen research philosophy and approach. For example, deduction entails a statistically testable hypothesis, which in turn, indicates the need for quantitative data rather than qualitative. Consequently, the need for qualitative data limits the data collecting methods.

For its advantages over other strategies associated with the chosen research philosophy and approach (e.g., experiment), survey was deemed as the most appropriate research strategy to be used. For example, surveys are used when the data are to be collected from a large sample of individuals (Hair *et al.*, 2003). A survey allows the collection of a large amount of standardized data that enables easy comparisons (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). The development of research techniques (e.g., sampling) and sophisticated analysis techniques (e.g., multivariate statistical tests) facilitate the use of survey and increase its potential productivity (Hakim, 2000). In survey, (unlike tape recording and in-depth interviews) accountability and transparency can be sustained, especially because the methods (e.g., questionnaire) and procedures (e.g., sampling technique) used can be made visible and accessible to other parties (Hakim, 2000).

Accountability and transparency allow detailed criticism and facilitate systematic refinement of survey methods and techniques (Hakim, 2000).

On the other hand, in survey, where structured questionnaire can be used, information lesser in depth is obtained when compared with other strategies (e.g., in-depth interview) (Hakim, 2000). Nonetheless, this does not imply loss of sensitivity and quality, which is conditional upon the way in which the survey is conducted (Hakim, 2000).

There are four sources of error associated with survey: sampling error, coverage error, measurement error, and non-response error (Dillman, 2000). The first three sources of error will be dealt with in this chapter (sampling error and coverage error in Section 6.6, and measurement error in Section 6.8), whereas non-response error will be dealt with in Chapter 7, Section 7.2.2. Further, choosing the survey strategy requires taking the following steps in data analysis: analysing returns, checking for response bias, conducting a descriptive analysis, combining items into scales, testing reliability of scales and fulfilling research aims by inferential statistics (Creswell, 2003). The survey design is delineated in the following three sections.

6.4.1 Enquiry purpose

The aims of this study, which indicate the purpose of this study, were stated in the previous chapter. These aims include exploring ESTEDA'A leavers' attitudes to, and perceptions of, ESTEDA'A. They also include explaining the ESTEDA'A leavers' perceptions of organisational justice regarding ESTEDA'A, through testing the influences of the independent variables on these perceptions, and how ESTEDA'A type moderates these influences. The independent variables are new job level, need to work (employment commitment, number of dependents, and participation in family income), personality traits (negative affectivity, positive affectivity, internal locus of control, powerful others locus of control, and chance locus of control), prior job attitudes (prior organisational commitment, and prior job satisfaction), informal advanced notice, the interaction of wanting to work and

working after ESTEDA'A, the interaction of informal advanced notice and prior job attitudes, and the interaction of working after ESTEDA'A and unemployment rates. Hence, the purpose of this study is mainly hypothesis testing (Sekaran, 2000) or explanatory (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). However, as some data has no corresponding hypothesis, these data pertains to a descriptive purpose of this study.

6.4.2 Time horizon of the survey

Data can be collected through two time perspectives (horizons): cross-sectional (data are collected at point in time) and longitudinal (data are collected over time) (Creswell, 2003; Sekaran, 2000). The time horizon of a survey is determined upon research aims and independently from research strategy (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). Since the data are collected at one point in time, which the most suitable to the research aims, the survey of this study is cross-sectional.

6.4.3 Data collection methods

(I) The main data collection method

The data collection methods that are used in surveys fall into two categories: self-administered and interviewer-administered (Hair *et al.*, 2003). Self-administered methods include mail surveys and Internet surveys, whereas interviewer-administered methods, which involve direct contact with the respondents, include face-to-face, telephone, and computer dialog interviews (Hair *et al.*, 2003). Questionnaire, which is 'a predetermined set of questions designed to capture data from respondents', has several advantages over the other methods (Hair *et al.*, 2003, p. 130). Specifically, Self-administered questionnaires enable data collection from a large sample in a relatively quick and convenient way, nonetheless, they lack researcher's control, e.g., the researcher does not know whether the intended person answered the questionnaire or someone else (Hair *et al.*, 2003). Self-administered questionnaire can be delivered via mail, fax, or Internet (Dillman, 2000). A self-administered postal questionnaire was chosen as

the main method for data collection, especially that not all respondent have access to a fax or the Internet. Consequently, several suggestions were considered in developing the questionnaire of this study, which may increase the response rate. These considerations are discussed in Section 6.8.

(II) Other sources of data

At an early stage of this study, four exploratory interviews were conducted to explore the method of ESTEDA'A. At that stage, none of the ESTEDA'A leavers was identified; therefore, the interviewees were not of the population of the study (defined in the following section). A letter that provided information about the research, the researcher, and contact details for any complaint regarding the researcher conduct (as recommended by Research Ethics Committee), was obtained from the Business School research office at Oxford Brookes University (a copy of this letter is presented in appendix A). This letter was presented before conducting any interview, which facilitated the access to these interviews.

The first interview was conducted with two civil servants, who were of the researchers' acquaintances and were eligible to be awarded ESTEDA'A. They provided information about the reasons that might force/motivate a civil servant to apply for a voluntary ESTEDA'A, how s/he would feel if was awarded a compulsory ESTEDA'A, and how to obtain more information about ESTEDA'A (a copy of the checklist of questions is presented in appendix A). The second and third interviews were conducted separately in the Jordanian Civil Service Bureau with civil servants in their working place. The second interview was with a public relations officer, through which a copy of the Jordanian Civil Service Bylaw was provided. She also provided information about how she would feel if she was awarded a compulsory ESTEDA'A, and what reasons may lead her to request ESTEDA'A. The third interview was with the directorate of information of the Jordanian Civil Service Bureau, through which a list of ESTEDA'A leavers was provided. This list was at an early stage of this research, therefore, an updated list was provided later through the same person. The fourth interview was conducted with a middle level manager at the Jordanian Department of Statistics,

through which information about unemployment rates in Jordan was obtained. The information that was obtained through these interviews was reported in Chapter 4.

Further, survey data can be supplemented by secondary data (Hakim, 2000), which is the case in this study. Saunders *et al.* (2007) developed a classification for secondary data, through which secondary data are grouped into three types: documentary, multiple sources, and survey. The secondary data used in this study are of the 'survey' type, specifically, within 'censuses' subgroup (Saunders *et al.*, 2007).

Using secondary data in this study fulfils two objectives: to expand the understanding of the research context and to enable triangulation via data sources (Hakim, 2000). The descriptive part of these secondary data was reported in Chapter 4., whereas the part that will be used in hypotheses testing (data-source triangulation) is discussed in Section 6.9:

In addition, some data were obtained through the process of contacting respondents of this study (explained in the next section). For example, three respondents attached letters to their completed questionnaires that included details about privatisation and ESTEDA'A. These data were used in writing Chapter 4.

6.5 Population of the study

In a survey study, the population 'consists of all of the units (individuals, households, organizations) to which one desires to generalize survey results' (Dillman, 2000, p. 196). In this study, the population constitutes of the 2,803 Jordanian ex-civil servants who have been downsized by being awarded ESTEDA'A on or before 1st August 2004. The first case of awarding ESTEDA'A was on 15th May 1988, however, although the Jordanian Civil Service Bureau continues to award ESTEDA'A, when the data collecting started, the last ESTEDA'A case was on 1st August 2004. A list of all ESTEDA'A leavers that

includes their names, dates of ESTEDA'A, ranks, and their previous employers, were provided by the Jordanian Civil Service Bureau. Nonetheless, the contact details of ESTEDA'A leavers were not available to the Jordanian Civil Service Bureau, and thereby, were not provided.

At the beginning, the endeavours were made to survey the whole population. However, the main obstacle was how to contact ESTEDA'A leavers. One possible way was to contact their previous employers and ask for the details of their ESTEDA'A leavers. Consequently, the previous employers of ESTEDA'A leavers were approached with a list of their ESTEDA'A leavers to appeal for their contact details. As a result, none of the previous employers accepted to provide such personal details, though some civil servants offered their help by providing contact details of their acquaintances who were awarded ESTEDA'A. Those acquaintances were only 17 ESTEDA'A leavers.

The other possible way to contact ESTEDA'A leavers was through searching for their names in the general telephone book, contacting them by telephone, asking their informed consent to participate, and, if accepted to participate, asking for their convenient postal address.

This way has several disadvantages including the following. First, there is a possibility that some of the ESTEDA'A leavers do not have a telephone at all. Second, they may have a telephone but it is not listed. Third, they may have a telephone that is listed but with another family member's name, which is expected to be the case for most of the females in Jordan. It is noteworthy that each Jordanian belongs to a certain tribe that can be identified by his/her surname. This Jordanian (probably Arabic) attribute can be employed to overcome these disadvantages. Specifically, when the name of an ESTEDA'A leaver is not listed in the general telephone book, alternatively, the search can be for names of his/her relatives to ask for his/her telephone or mobile number.

One obstacle that may appear when contacting female ESTEDA'A leavers is that, for some Jordanian families, an unknown male (the researcher) asking about

their female members is not tolerable. Therefore, two female assistants were assigned to contact ESTEDA'A leavers, especially females.

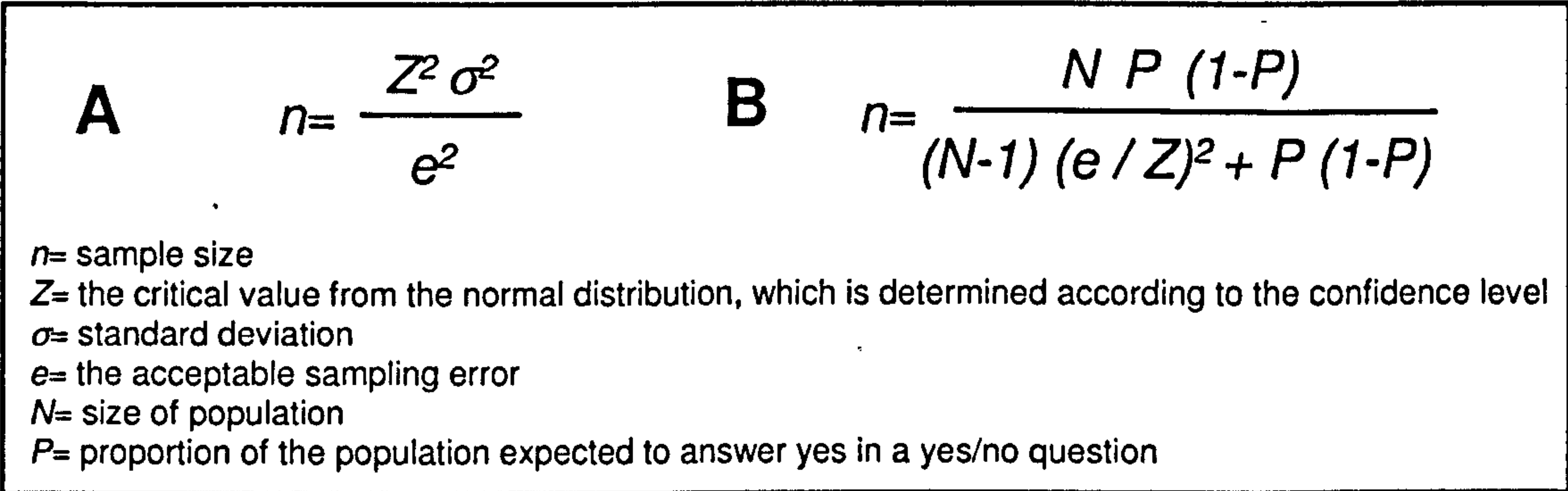
To facilitate the process of searching for telephone numbers, an electronic copy of the general telephone book was obtained, which enables searching through a computer. Nonetheless, following the previous steps implied that contacting the whole population is probably impracticable in respect of time and budget constraints. Thereby, it was considered that sampling might be an inevitable alternative.

6.6 Sampling technique

A sample 'consists of all units of the population that are drawn for inclusion in the survey' (Dillman, 2000, p. 196). To enable generalisation from the sample to the population, which is an essential characteristic associated with positivism and deduction, using a probability sample is deemed imperative (e.g., Berenson and Levine, 1999; Dillman, 2000; Hair *et al.*, 2003). In a probability sampling, all members of the population have a predetermined chance to be selected in the sample (Hair *et al.*, 2003). Sample error stems from 'the fact that only a subset of the entire population is surveyed' (Dillman, 2000, p. 196). Although sample error, which is highly dependent on sample size, is inevitable when using a sample, this error can be estimated with considerable precision (Dillman, 2000; Hair *et al.*, 2003). Therefore, the appropriate sample size is decided based on a predetermined acceptable sample error (Dillman, 2000; Hair *et al.*, 2003). The other two factors that should be considered when deciding the appropriate sample size are homogeneity of population and the confidence level (Dillman, 2000; Hair *et al.*, 2003). The homogeneity of population can be assessed via standard deviation (Berenson and Levine, 1999; Hair *et al.*, 2003) or via the proportion of population that would answer yes (or no) in a yes/no question (Dillman, 2000). For this purpose, the formula presented by Berenson and Levine (1999, p. 384) and Hair *et al.* (2003, p. 220) (see A in Figure 6.1) as well as the formula presented by Dillman (2000, p. 206) (see B in Figure 6.1) are

considered. It is noteworthy that the formula A is designed for relatively large population; therefore, it does not consider the population size, which may result when used with small populations in an unnecessary large sample, i.e., more than 5% of the population (Hair *et al.*, 2003).

Figure 6.1 Sample size determination formulas



Source of A: Berenson and Levine (1999, p. 384)
Source of B: Dillman (2000, p. 206)

As recommend (Berenson and Levine, 1999; Dillman, 2000; Hair *et al.*, 2003), the confidence level= 95% (i.e., *Z*= 1.96) and the acceptable sampling error is 10%. For formula A, when the standard deviation is assumed to equal 0.833, thereby the required sample size is computed at 267. Alternatively, using formula B to produce the same sample size (267) with *P* = 50% (the minimum homogeneity) can be done with smaller sample error (5.7%). Thereby, the decision was to consider the sample size of 267, with sample error between 5.7% and 10 %.

The response rates when using postal questionnaire vary across studies. For example, Fryxel and Gordon (1989) reported response rates 13.2% and 37.8% for their two samples. If the 267 were the number of completed sample (those who returned usable questionnaires), then with an expected response rate around 30% (Saunders *et al.*, 2007), the targeted sample would be around 867.

The list that contains the names of ESTEDA'A leavers (explained in the previous Section) was used as a sampling frame, which 'is the list from which a sample is to be drawn to represent the survey population' (Dillman, 2000, p. 196). The appropriateness of a sample frame is associated with coverage error, which

results when not all members of the survey population had an equal chance of being sampled to participate in the survey (Dillman, 2000). To reduce coverage error, as recommended by Dillman (2000), the Jordanian Civil Service Bureau was asked to confirm that the list of ESTEDA'A leavers (sample frame) contains every ESTEDA'A leaver (the whole population) up to date, which was the case. The use of probability sample (discussed above) also reduces the coverage error, as all population members have known chances to be selected in the sample.

To draw the sample, the names were ranked according to ESTEDA'A year and given serial numbers. This procedure enables the use of a stratified sample through which the sample units are selected proportionally according to their ESTEDA'A years (Hair *et al.*, 2003). As stated earlier, the initial target was to survey the whole population, i.e., searching for telephone numbers was targeting the whole population. Therefore, selecting the sample was made in a way that enables increasing the sample to include the whole population without the need to remove the selected names and re-rank the list again. Specifically, since 867 equals approximately 30% of the population, the first three numbers of each ten were selected, which enables afterwards to select the fourth number, fifth number and so forth to survey the whole population, if it appeared to be possible, which was not the case. This way of selecting sample units is called systemic sampling (Hair *et al.*, 2003). Consequently, a stratified-systemic-random sample of 843 (30% of the population) ex-civil servants who have been awarded ESTEDA'A (ESTEDA'A leavers), stratified by the year of awarding ESTEDA'A were surveyed.

6.7 Unit of analysis

In this study, the unit of analysis is the individual respondent, i.e., each ESTEDA'A leaver. Thereby, the data to be collected, variables to be measured, and inference to be made are pertaining to ESTEDA'A leavers.

6.8 Development of the research questionnaire

In developing the main data collection methods, several concerns were considered that aims at reducing measurement errors and increasing response rate. Measurement error occurs when the obtained values are not the same as the true values, which may result from interviewer bias or errors, data input errors, respondent's misunderstanding or misinterpretation (Hair *et al.*, 2003). Measurement error may also result from poor question wording or when questions are presented in a way that leads to inaccurate answers (Dillman, 2000, p. 11).

To ensure that all the required data are collected, the research aims and their corresponding hypotheses were reviewed, and the variables were identified. Consequently, it was determined how to measure the data pertaining to each variable, hypothesis, and research aim. The identified variables and their corresponding questions are presented in Section 6.8.3. The measures included in the questionnaire are mainly adapted from other studies, which enables comparison of results (Punch, 2005; Saunders *et al.*, 2007). The adapted measures were assessed through their reported reliabilities and validities as recommended (e.g., Creswell, 2003; Punch, 2005). However, some questions (single items) are for descriptive purpose, and were developed for this study. Afterwards, to assess the content validity, the questionnaire was reviewed by two academics who have experience in questionnaire design and organisational research, and their suggestions were reconciled.

To reduce the possibility of response pattern in answering the questions, four items of the questionnaire were reversed (q74, q80, q85, q86) as recommended by Oppenheim (1992). On the other hand, regarding social desirability bias (Oppenheim, 1992), many writers (e.g. Jolley and ,Spielberger, 1973; Watson and Clark, 1984) underpinned the existence of some respondents who deny their undesirable self perception by reporting what is desirable not what is perceived. To minimise the potential bias of social desirability, Oppenheim (1992)

recommends avoiding open questions when measuring such concepts, and to repeatedly impress on the respondents that there is no better answer and that accuracy is what required. Consequently, the questionnaire did not include open questions that pertain to self-perception, and the respondents repeatedly received a verbal emphasis (while contacting them) on the importance of reporting exactly what they perceived according to the answering forms.

There were six filtering instructions that determine the eligibility to answer the corresponding questions; these instructions were placed just before their relevant questions (q9, q11, q15, q68, q82, and q83), which may reduce the possibility of answering an inapplicable question (Dillman, 2000).

The first four questions were applicable to all respondents, to help reduce the possibility of not completing the questionnaire (Dillman, 2000). To avoid unnecessary details (Dillman, 2000), the respondent were asked indicate the starting and ending years of ESTEDA'A period instead of asking about the exact dates. In addition, it was important to bear in mind that the vast majority (77% of the respondents) of Jordanians fear criticizing or disagreeing with the government in public (Center for Strategic Studies, 2005). Thereby, the questionnaire, especially the part that pertains to fairness judgement, was developed not to entail any expression that can be interpreted by the respondent as criticizing or disagreeing with the civil service bureau that would negatively affect the response rate. Relatively short scales were adopted or adapted (see section 6.8.3) that can help to sustain a reasonable length of the questionnaire, which, in turn, may improve response rate (Edwards *et al.*, 2002). A copy of the questionnaire and its covering letter is presented in Appendix A.

Further, a stamped, addressed envelope was enclosed with the questionnaire to be used for returning the completed questionnaire. There is evidence that using stamped envelopes improves response rate, especially because it implies the importance of returning the questionnaire completed (Dillman, 2000; Edwards *et al.*, 2002).

6.8.1 Covering letter

There is evidence that the content of the covering letter of the questionnaire can improve response rate (Dillman, 2000). While preparing the covering letter, it was important to ensure that the essential information is included and written in a simple language (especially when translated to Arabic, see Section 6.8.5) that suits all levels of education that respondents may hold. Especially that not using simple language may imply to the respondent that there will be some difficulty in apprehending, and consequently, completing the questionnaire. Further, covering letters were personalised to increase response rate (Edwards *et al.*, 2002). Each covering letter included information about the research, the university, the researcher, contact details, an emphasis that the participation is voluntary, and a promise of anonymity and confidentiality. In addition, the respondents were indicated to use the enclosed stamped, addressed envelope. The research ethics concerns regarding the questionnaire and its covering letter are discussed in Section 6.8.7.

6.8.2 General information

The items pertaining to general information are used to describe the completed sample (see Section 7.2). The first item (q1) was about gender, whereas items q57-q63 were about other general information (age, educational level, and membership of a professional association) as they were in the ESTEDA year. The questions of q4 and q56 pertain the year of ending ESTEDA'A period and the starting year, respectively. Age and gender are used as control variables when testing hypotheses via multiple regressions (see Section 5.3). Gender and ESTEDA'A year are used to assess the possibility of non-response bias (see Section 7.2.2).

The items q2 (pension type), q3 (years in service), q64 and q65 (managerial level) pertain to respondent's details as a civil servant. Item q6 pertains to whether a respondent considered having a job with high job security as a reason to join civil service. The items of q5, q9-q14 pertain to employment before joining

the civil service and after being awarded ESTEDA'A working in JCS. Specifically, q5 (working in private sector), q9 (number of job after ESTEDA'A), q10 (having a job before leaving civil service), q11 (how long waiting to start searching for job), q12 (how long waiting to find job), q13 (how long expected to find job), and q14 (working now). The item q10 is used as a control variable in hypothesis 1(f).

The relevant questions about finding a new job after ESTEDA'A (q12-q14) were preceded by two filter questions, so as only who worked after ESTEDA'A, excluding who found a job before leaving their previous jobs, are eligible to indicate how long they waited before start looking for a new job, and waited or expected to wait to find a new job.

The change in the family income, when compared with how it was before ESTEDA'A, was measured via q66. This item had five answering categories ranging from 'more than before' to 'less than before', with middle point 'the same'. The first category was coded 1, whereas the fifth category was coded 5. This item is used as a control variable in hypothesis 1(f).

6.8.3 Variables

The items (questions) included in the questionnaire are discussed in the following sections with regard to their relevant variables. A list of these items with connection to their variables, hypotheses, and research aims, are presented in Table 6.2 within the summary of the chapter.

Although some of the adapted scales were originally measured on 7-point likert scales, a 5-point Likert scale was used for answering 43 out of the 87 questions included in the questionnaire because it is likely to be the most common scale for respondents (see piloting this questionnaire). For example, when reviewing studies that surveyed Jordanian civil servants, it appears that all of them used a 5-point Likert scale (e.g., Awamleh, 2002). In answering the relevant questions (q29-q54, q71-q87), the level of agreement was indicated by five degrees that ranged from strongly disagree (coded 1) to strongly agree (coded 5), with the

middle point indicating neutrality (coded 3). It is noteworthy that question q74 was reverse recoded when the summated scale of its corresponding construct was composed (see Section 7.7), as it was a reversed question (see Section 6.8). Other answering format will be explained when addressing the relevant questions.

(I) Wanting to work after ESTEDA'A

This variable was assessed via one item (q7) that had two answering categories: yes (coded 1) and no (coded 0). This variable is used in testing hypothesis 1(b) and hypothesis 2(b).

(II) Working after ESTEDA'A

This variable was assessed via one item (q8) that had two answering categories: yes (coded 1) and no (coded 0). This variable is used in testing hypothesis 1(b) and hypothesis 2(b).

(III) New job level

The level of the new job after ESTEDA'A compared to the civil service was assessed in respect of 11 aspects through questions q17-q28. Namely: the pay, supervision by others, nearness to home, opportunity to use skill, union representation, working hours, job security, type of work, working conditions, fringe benefits, health insurance and over-all comparison. All these aspects, except health insurance, were adopted from Burke (1985, p62). In case the respondents had several jobs after ESTEDA'A, the respondent was instructed that the assessment is regarding the last job (current job for those who are still working).

In Jordan, 60% of the population are covered by the two publicly provided health plans: the military and the civil service plans (International Monetary Fund, 2004). Health insurance is an important advantage for being civil servant; which is also provided to ESTEDA'A leavers (JCSB, 2002). However, some private

organisations provide a better health insurance. Thereby, health insurance was added (q27) as an aspect for comparison. These aspects were assessed on an ordinal scale with three categories, better, the same, and worse, which were coded 3,2, and 1, respectively. This variable is used in testing hypotheses 1(c), 1(f), and 2.

(IV) New job type

New job type refers to whether the new job after ESTEDA'A was part-time or full-time and whether it was permanent or temporary. These two aspects were measured by q15 and q16 respectively. Full-time coded 0, pr-time coded 1, permanent coded 0, temporary coded 1.

It is noteworthy that although these variables (new job type fulltime/part-time and new job type permanent/temporary) belong to 'new job level' variable set, they are measured independently from the previous job (i.e., not compared to the previous job). Therefore, 'new job type' is considered a subset within the group of 'new job levels', notwithstanding that the previous job type is known (i.e., all civil servants are permanent-fulltime employees). These two variables are used in testing hypotheses 1(c), 1(f), hypothesis 2(a), and hypothesis 2(b).

(V) Psychological need to work

The psychological need to work was determined by the degree of employment commitment, which was assessed via items q29-q33. These five items were adapted from the six-item Work Involvement Scale WIS developed by Warr, *et al.* (1979, p. 129), who state that, by using WIS in two studies, it has 'shown to have good internal reliability and to be factorially separate'. Researchers repeatedly use work involvement as an indicator of commitment to work or what is called employment commitment (e.g., Shamir, 1985; 1986). Particularly, the WIS was used or adapted as a method to measure employment commitment by many studies (e.g., Jackson *et al.*, 1983; Payne and Hartley, 1987; Warr, *et al.*, 1979).

Researchers applied original and adapted versions of WIS on both employed and unemployed respondents (Jackson *et al.*, 1983; Nordenmark, 1999), and reported sufficient reliability, where Cronbach's alphas were= .69 (Payne and Hartley, 1987; Payne *et al.*, 1984), .63 and .64 (Warr, *et al.*, 1979) for the original WIS, and .64, .67 and .71 (Jackson *et al.*, 1983) for adapted versions.

As a support to the construct validity of the used employment commitment measure, Warr and Lovait (1977) found ($p < .05$) that respondents with high employment commitment were significantly more likely to have a job and to start significantly earlier looking for a job compared to those with low employment commitment.

In this study, with an exclusion to one statement out of 6, an adapted version of Warr, *et al.*'s (1979) WIS was used to measure employment commitment. Because of its inapplicability, the statement 'If unemployment benefit was really high I would still prefer to work' (Warr, *et al.*, 1979, p. 145) was excluded, as there is no provision for unemployment benefits in Jordan (see Section 4.3.1). As an example, item q30 was 'having a job is very important to you'. The original scale was answered on a 7-point Likert scale; nonetheless, as explained earlier, in this study a 5-point Likert scale was used for reporting agreements/disagreement to these items. This variable is used in testing hypotheses 1(a) and hypothesis 2.

(VI) Economic need to work

The term 'economic need to work' was borrowed from Brockner *et al.* (1992b, p. 416). In this study, economic need to work was determined via respondent's situation as it was in the year of ESTEDA'A with respect to number of dependents, participation in family income, and being main breadwinner. Each of 'number of dependents' and 'participation in family income' was assessed by a single open question, items q62 and q63 respectively. These questions were adapted from Brockner *et al.* (1992b, p. 416) and Spreitzer and Mishra (2002, p. 719). However, although being a main breadwinner was measured by Burke

(1985) and Spreitzer and Mishra (2002, p. 719) via a direct question, in this study it was measured by recoding q63 as follows: the code is 1 if the participation is more than 50%, otherwise the code is 0. In other words, the code 1 means that the respondent was a main breadwinner in the year of ESTEDA'A. These variables are used in testing hypotheses 1(a), hypothesis 2(a), and hypothesis 2(b).

(VII) Prior organisational commitment

As stated in Section 3.5.4, the prior organisational commitment (POC) is captured in this study by the three dimensions of Porter *et al.* (1974). For this purpose, a 3-item scale developed by Brockner *et al.* (1992) was used. The three captured dimensions were 'belief in the organization's goals or values, willingness to work hard, and intention to remain with the organization' (Brockner *et al.*, 1992, p. 248). Brockner *et al.* (1992) reported a reliability alpha at .85 for their short organisational commitment 3-item scale, whereas Wanberg *et al.* (1999) reported alpha for the same scale at .71. Beside the sufficient reliability and good face validity of this scale, its shortness helps to sustain a reasonable length of the questionnaire, which, in turn, may improve response rate (Edwards *et al.*, 2002). The original scale was preceded by the following instruction

These questions ask you your opinions about this company prior to the layoffs. *You may still feel this way or you may not.* In answering these questions put yourself back in time prior to the layoffs, and answer the questions with regard to how you felt then, not necessary how you feel *now*. (Brockner *et al.*, 1992, p. 248)

However, in this study, prior organisational commitment is studied as one type of prior job attitudes, whereas the other type is prior job satisfaction (discussed next). The items pertaining to prior organisational commitment and prior job satisfaction were listed together, thereby; their preceding instructions (adapted from those presented) were formed to apply to both of prior organisational commitment and prior job satisfaction.

The items that capture prior organisational commitment are q48, q50, and q52. As an example, item q48 was 'You felt loyal to the civil service'. The original scale was answered on a 7-point Likert scale; nonetheless, as explained earlier, in this study a 5-point Likert scale was used for reporting agreements/disagreement to these items. This variable is used in testing hypothesis 1(a), hypothesis 1(g), and hypothesis 2(a).

(VIII) Prior job satisfaction

As discussed in Section 3.5.4, prior job satisfaction is captured in this study by the global job satisfaction, which refers to a general attitude about the job as a whole (Taber and Alliger, 1995). Bratfield and Rothe (1951) presented an 18-item overall-job-satisfaction index, which had reliability coefficient of .83 and an evident validity. A shortened version of this index of Bratfield and Rothe (1951) was used by other researchers. Specifically, Agho *et al.* (1992) used a shortened version with six items and reported an excellent reliability with $\alpha = .90$ and an evident discriminant validity. This shortened version was also used by Chiu (1999) who reported $\alpha = .85$. Beside these sufficient reliability alphas, shortness of this 6-item scale that helps to sustaining a reasonable length of the questionnaire supported adapting this scale to be used in this study.

The items through which prior job satisfaction was captured were q46, q47, q49, q51, q53, and q54. As an example, item q46 was 'You found real enjoyment in your job'. As explained earlier regarding prior organisational commitment, these items were preceded by instructions to indicate that the required information is as it was before ESTEDA'A. A 5-point Likert scale was used for reporting agreements/disagreement to these items (as the original). This variable is used in testing hypothesis 1(a), hypothesis 1(g), and hypothesis 2(a).

(IX) Locus of control

As discussed in Section 3.5.4, based on factor analysis, Levenson (1974) identified the three dimensions of locus of control as: internal (ILOC), chance

(CLOC) and powerful-others (PLOC). To capture these dimensions of locus of control, Levenson (1974) presented a 24-item scale, which had good face validity and sufficient reliability alphas (0.64 for internal locus of control, .77 for powerful-others locus of control, and .78 for chance locus of control). The result of factor analysis was also confirmed elsewhere (e.g., Walkey, 1979).

A 12-item scale was adapted from Levenson's (1974) scale to capture the three dimensions, with four items for each dimension. According to the results of the factor analysis reported by Levenson (1974), the four items with the highest loading on each dimension were chosen. The items that pertain to powerful-others locus of control were q34-q37. As an example, item q36 was 'Your life is controlled chiefly by powerful others'. The items that pertain to internal locus of control were q38-q41. As an example, item q38 was 'Your life is determined by your own actions'. The items that pertain to chance locus of control were q42-q45. As an example, item q44 was 'When you get what you want, it's usually because you're lucky'.

The original scale was answered on a 7-point Likert scale; nonetheless, as explained earlier, in this study a 5-point Likert scale was used for reporting agreements/disagreement to these items. These variables (internal locus of control, powerful-others locus of control, and chance locus of control) are used in testing hypothesis 1(a) and hypothesis 2(a).

(X) Positive affectivity and negative affectivity

The PANAS (Positive and Negative Affect Schedule) scale developed by Watson *et al.* (1988), which is considered a brief scale, is widely used to measure positive affectivity and negative affectivity traits. PANAS maintains an evident validity (Watson *et al.*, 1988). Reliability for PANAS reported by Watson *et al.* (1988) varied according to time instructions (present moment, today, past few days, past few weeks, past year and generally), where alpha reliabilities for the positive affectivity part of PANAS were .89, .90, .88, .87, .86, .88 respectively, and for negative affectivity part they were .85, .87, .85, .87, .84, .87 respectively.

By using PANAS with the general time instructions, as recommended by Watson *et al.* (1988) to increase the likelihood that a subject will experience the given affects, many researchers reported sufficient reliability alphas. For example, regarding positive affectivity and negative affectivity parts respectively, alphas were .85, .85 (Mak and Mueller, 2000); .82, .85 (Shaw *et al.*, 2000); .84, .84 (Watson and McKee Walker, 1996); .87, .83 (Williams *et al.*, 2000). In addition, Watson and McKee Walker (1996, p. 575) reported that 'both PANAS scales demonstrated significant predictive validity across... extended time intervals' (up to 7.5 years).

As a proof for the stability of dispositional research across different cultures, Shaw *et al.* (2000) used PANAS scale in an Arabic context with a sufficient estimated reliability (Crombach's alpha= .85, .82 for negative affectivity and positive affectivity respectively), though the scale was administered in English¹¹. 'Cross-cultural replicability also has been demonstrated in Japan ... Israel ... and Russia. Thus the structure's robustness is impressive' (Watson and Clark, 1997, p. 270).

With a minor alteration to the answering scale, PANAS with the general time instructions was used in this study. Resembling Skarlicki *et al.*'s (1999) answering scale and as recommended by two academic experts for more clearance, 'very slightly or not at all' answering category was split into two categories 'not at all' (coded 0) and slightly (coded 1). This alteration was also made to conform to the 'Empirical evidence that people treat the intervals between points on such scales as being equal in magnitude' (Hair *et al.*, 2003, p. 157), which is the base 'for treating them as measure on interval scale' (Hair *et al.*, 2003, p. 157). The rest of the answering scale (a little, moderately, quiet a bit, extremely) remained without alteration and were coded 2-5 respectively. PANAS was used in q55 that had 10 sub-items for each of negative affectivity and positive affectivity. As an example, 'distressed' and 'interested' are sub-

¹¹ The first writer provided this information via an email.

items that pertain to negative affectivity and positive affectivity, respectively. These two variables (negative affectivity and positive affectivity) are used in testing hypothesis 1(a) and hypothesis 2(a).

(XI) ESTEDA'A Type

This categorical variable, ESTEDA'A type, was measured via q67, which was 'Were you awarded ESTEDA'A upon your request?'. The answer 'yes', which implies that the respondent had a voluntary ESTEDA'A, was coded 1, whereas the answer 'no' was coded 0. As other categorizations were plausible (see Sections 5.4.1 and 7.9.1), recoding this variable into three or four categories is possible by considering the year of ESTEDA'A. Specifically, in the case of three categories, compulsory cases are coded 0, voluntary cases after 1998 are coded 1, and other voluntary (labelled induced voluntary) cases are coded 2. In the case of four categories, compulsory cases after 1998 are coded 0, other compulsory (labelled high referent compulsory) cases are coded 1, voluntary cases after 1998 are coded 2, other voluntary (labelled induced voluntary) cases are coded 3. This variable is used as a moderating variable in hypothesis 2(a) and hypothesis 2(b).

(XII) Reason for awarding ESTEDA'A

This variable was measured by a multi-answer question (q69), where respondents have the choice to tick all of the applicable answers out of the three options: your performance, organizational need, and/or your needs. There was also an open-answer option to add other factors. Each option represents a separate variable and will be coded 1 if ticked and 0 if not, except the open-answer that will be used for descriptive purpose. These variables are used in testing hypothesis 1(a) and hypothesis 2(b).

(XIII) Reason for asking to be awarded ESTEDA'A

This variable is exclusive to voluntary cases; hence, it was preceded by filtering instruction. It was measured by a multi-answer question (q68), where

respondents have the choice to tick all of the applicable answers out of the five options: family issues, another job, tired, illness, and changing your life. There was also an open-answer option to add other factors. Each option represents a separate variable and will be coded 1 if ticked and 0 if not, except the open-answer that will be used for descriptive purpose. These variables are used in testing hypothesis 1(d).

(XIV) Informal advanced notice

Whether the ESTEDA'A leaver received an informal advance notice about the ESTEDA'A decision or not was measure via one dichotomous item: q70. The answer 'yes' indicates receiving informal advance notice and was coded 1, whereas the answer 'no' indicates not receiving informal advance notice and was coded 0. This variable is used in testing hypothesis 1(f), hypothesis 1(g), and hypothesis 2(b).

(XV) Organisational justice

As discussed in Section 3.4, there is a lack of standardized measurement for organisational justice (Bobocel and Holmvall, 2001; Greenberg, 1993a). For example, Bobocel and Holmvall (2001) state that most studies reported measures of procedural justice and/or interactional justice that were developed for these specific studies. Further, the appropriateness of such measures is uncertain (Greenberg, 1993a; Posthuma and Campion, 2005). These conditions led to adapting several measures in developing the measure of organisational justice for this study.

There are several concerns in developing a measurement of organisational justice (see Section 3.4), which have been highlighted by several writers (e.g., Bobocel and Holmvall, 2001; Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1993a; Posthuma and Campion, 2005). The key choices measuring organisational justice were combined by Colquitt and Shaw (2005). These key choices are dimensionality of organisational justice, the source of organisational justice, the context of

organisational justice, measure approach, and measurement repetition (Colquitt and Shaw, 2005). These choices will be used as a framework to arrive to the most appropriate measure of organisational justice.

First, regarding dimensionality of organisational justice, as discussed in Section 3.4, notwithstanding that the two-facet dimensionality of organisational justice is adopted in this study, all facets of organisational justice will be assessed via at least one item.

Second, the rules of justice (e.g., consistency) can be judged in reference to different sources of justice (a human decision-making agent or a formal organisational system) (Colquitt, 2001). For example, organisational policies may have a mechanism that ensures consistency (the source of justice is the formal organisational system), and supervisors can seek to be consistent in applying these policies (the source of justice is the decision-making agents) (Colquitt and Shaw, 2005). In respect to ESTESDA'A context, the received outcomes are designated according to the JCSB (Jordanian Civil Service Bylaw); in this case, the source of justice is the formal organisational system. However, although procedures (structural part of procedural justice) to award ESTEDA'A are according to the JCSB, the criteria of choosing ESTEDA'A leavers are placed by the relevant Minister; hence, the structural part of procedural justice has two sources of justice (human and system). On the other hand, the interactional part of procedural justice implies that the source of justice is human, for example, politeness is associated with human interaction. Nonetheless, it should be acknowledged that a complete separation of justice sources for all facets of organisational justice is also possible, where the source of justice to be assessed can be only the system or the human. Nevertheless, the focus in the study is on the respondents' perceptions of ESTEDA'A, which is determined by the two sources of justice.

Third, Colquitt and Shaw (2005) argue that the context of justice can be single event, multiple event, or an entity. Studies concerned with a single event are context-specific; for example, Wanberg *et al.* (1999, p. 60) studied the perceived

fairness of layoff. Studies concerned with several events and focus on the events (not the source of justice) are termed multiple-event studies. Other studies that may assess several events but focus on one source of justice (e.g., the organisation) are considered entity-focused. As discussed earlier, this study is concerned with ESTEDA'A (i.e., context-specific); therefore, the assessment of organisational justice is in respect to ESTEDA'A only.

Fourth, Colquitt and Shaw (2005) state that the measure approach can be direct or indirect. Direct measures ask whether the outcomes, procedures, and treatments were fair or not (e.g., Daly 1995; Earley and Lind, 1987; Tyler, 1989), whereas indirect measures ask whether a certain attribute associated with justice (e.g., consistency) was present or not (e.g. Moorman, 1991; Mansour-Cole and Scot, 1998). As discussed in Sections 3.5.2 and 5.3, organisational justice is determined by comparing the actual (outcome, procedure, and treatment) to the expected. This implies that the assessment of organisational justice should be assessed directly, especially because all rules of justice (e.g., equity, equality, or need) can be applied according to perceiver's assessment of organisational justice. Nonetheless, in respect to the structural part of procedural justice, the existence of two attributes was repeatedly assessed when measuring procedural justice (e.g., Colquitt, 2001; Mansour-Cole and Scot, 1998; Moorman, 1991; Posthuma and Campion, 2005). These two attributes, originally proposed by Leventhal (1980), are the chances for challenging the decision and consistency in applying it across all receivers. Assessing the existence of these attributes also helps in measurement repetition, discussed next.

Fifth, measurement repetition involves how items in a multi-item measure will differ from each other (Colquitt and Shaw, 2005). In a multiple-event context, the measurement repetition can be achieved by assessing the fairness of each event. When an indirect measure approach is used, measurement repetition can be done by assessing the existence of several attributes associated with justice. When a direct measure approach is used, measurement repetition can be fulfilled by using synonyms for the word fair. The measurement repetition in this study

was achieved by assessing several attributes in respect to procedural justice, and by assessing several aspects of the outcomes in respect to distributive justice.

As a result, two measures were developed to capture the two facets of organisational justice: distributive justice and procedural justice. The validity of these items can be interpreted from the consent across several studies on their representation of the different facets of organisational justice. The items of these measures are presented in the following sections, with reference to their original measures in case of adapting. A 5-point Likert scale was used for reporting agreements/disagreement to these items. These variables are used in testing all the hypotheses.

(A) Distributive justice (outcomes fairness)

The distributive justice of ESTEDA'A was assessed directly via assessing the fairness of three aspects of ESTEDA'A outcomes. These three aspects, which were used for measurement repetition, pertain to what an ESTEDA'A leaver receives and pays during ESTEDA'A period, and the length of his/her ESTEDA'A period. As discussed in Section 4.2, what an ESTEDA'A leaver receives depends on his/her ESTEDA'A type, therefore this aspect was assessed via two items q82 and q83, and the respondents were instructed to answer the item that is applicable to their situation. The other two aspects (what an ESTEDA'A leaver pays and the length of his/her ESTEDA'A period) were assessed via items q78, and q79, respectively.

(B) Procedural justice

As stated above (see also Section 3.4), in this study, the two domains of procedural justice: interpersonal/interactional and structural/formal were combined to measure procedural justice, which is followed by other researchers (e.g., Brockner *et al.*, 1995; Tyler, 1989; Wiesenfeld *et al.*, 2000). In this study, procedural justice was measured via 7 questions; five of them assessed the structural part and two questions assessed the interpersonal part.

(a) The structural part of procedural justice

As stated earlier, the structural part of procedural justice is assessed both directly and indirectly. The procedural justice was assessed directly via three items that were pertaining to the fairness of formal advanced notice (q71), criteria for choosing ESTEDA'A leavers (q72), and criteria for excluding persons from ESTEDA'A decision (q73). Item q71 was used in a downsizing context by several studies (e.g., Burke, 1986; Brockner *et al.*, 1994; Cropanzano and Konovsky, 1995; Posthuma and Campion, 2005; Spreitzer and Mishra, 2002). The items q72 and q73 were adapted from Brockner *et al.* (1992a), Greenberg (1993c), Wiesenfeld *et al.* (2000), and Spreitzer and Mishra (2002), where they were used in a downsizing context.

The two items that were used to assess procedural justice indirectly were pertaining to the existence of two attributes, namely the chances for challenging ESEDAA decision (q76) and the consistency in applying ESTEDA'A decision on all ESTEDA'A leavers (q77). As stated above, these attributes were used in several studies (e.g., Colquitt, 2001; Mansour-Cole and Scot, 1998; Moorman, 1991; Posthuma and Campion, 2005).

(b) The interactional part of procedural justice

The two items that assessed the interactional part of procedural justice were pertaining to interpersonal justice (q74) and informational justice (q75). These items were used by several studies, for example, Colquitt (2001), Mansour-Cole and Scot (1998), Moorman (1991), and Posthuma and Campion (2005). The item q74 was about the management treatment after ESTEDA'A, which was a reversed question. The item q75 was about the management's provision of the explanation regarding ESTEDA'A decision.

6.8.4 Items for descriptive purposes

As stated earlier in this chapter, some data, which describe respondents' perception of ESTEDA'A, were collected for descriptive purpose. These data

were collected through items q80, q81, q84-q87. A 5-point Likert scale was used for reporting agreements/disagreement to these items. These items, which belong to the first research aim, are for a descriptive purpose; hence, they are not used in any hypothesis testing.

The item q80 that reads 'there were fairer alternatives instead of awarding you ETEDA'A' was adapted from 'referent cognition' and 'fairness' theories (see Section 3.5.2). Specifically, the availability of fairer alternatives according to the respondent's perception indicates that ESTEDA'A is perceived as a high referent downsizing method in terms of its organisational justice.

The item q81 reads 'by summing up all that resulted from being awarded ESTEDA'A, you would consider yourself to be over-rewarded'. This item is based on 'equity theory' (see Section 3.5.2). Specifically, if a respondents considers him/herself as over-rewarded, this indicates a positive inequity (Brockner and Siegel, 1996), i.e., that respondents received more than what s/he thought to deserve.

The items q84-q87 pertains to how a respondent feels when thinking about ESTEDA'A, namely 'rewarded', 'wronged', 'betrayed', and 'given an opportunity', respectively. These possible feelings were derived from the preliminary interviews discussed in Section 6.4.3 and based on literature. For example, the feeling of being 'betrayed' was assessed in the organisational justice literature (e.g., Bies and Shapiro, 1987), whereas the feeling of being 'given an opportunity' was assessed in downsizing literature (e.g., Payne *et al.*, 1984; Sronce and McKinley, 2006). Further, the feelings of being 'rewarded' and being 'wronged' imply judgments of organisational justice.

6.8.5 Questionnaire translation

As Arabic is the first language in Jordan, it was prudent to translate the questionnaire to Arabic to minimise the possibility of non-response due to language difficulties. To fulfil this object, Usunier (1998) lists four types of

translation techniques: direct translation, back translation, parallel translation, and mixed techniques. Direct translation involves a single translation from the source language to the target language.

The second type, back translation, involves two translations: first, from the source language to the target language, and second, translating the resultant version back to the source language. Afterwards, to arrive to a final version in the target language, the two source versions are compared and amendments are made on the version in the target language.

The third type, parallel translation, involves having several independent translations from the source language to the target language, comparing the translated versions, and arriving to a final version in the target language. The fourth type involves using parallel translation followed by back translations of the resultant versions of parallel translation, comparing the back-translated versions and arriving to a final version in the target language.

As the author of this questionnaire is an Arabic native, this would help to ensure that the specific meanings included in the questionnaire are fully rendered in the Arabic version. Therefore, the main aim is having clear wording in the Arabic version. This aim can be achieved by using parallel translation and mixed techniques (Usunier, 1998). However, using the latter type is impracticable in respect of time, cost and finding the required translators. Consequently, the parallel-translation technique was deemed as the most suitable to use.

To translate the questionnaire by using the parallel-translation technique, two Arabic native translators were appointed. One of the translators had an MBA degree while the other had a Bachelor degree in Business administration. Both of them had experience in translation from English to Arabic and backwards while working with the Jordanian Civil Service.

To be translated independently into Arabic, a copy of the English version of the questionnaire and its covering letter was handed to each translator. The translators and the author had a meeting to discuss the translated versions item

by item. The Arabic version was prepared after minor differences between the two translated questionnaires were found and then reconciled. The differences pertained to the expressions 'job' and 'civil servant'. The word 'job' has several equivalents, thereby, the translators and the author agreed on one word to be the most appropriate. In addition, the expression 'civil servant' is common in Arabic; unlike the expression 'civil service'. Alternatively, the expression 'civil employee' was used.

For language-gender considerations, two versions of the covering letters were prepared: one to address female respondents and the other to address male respondents. Afterwards, the Arabic version of questionnaire and its covering letters were piloted.

6.8.6 Piloting the questionnaire

As a commonly used validation method in business research (Hair *et al.* 2003), a part of piloting the questionnaire dealt with its face validity. Although concerns about validity are discussed in Chapter 7, it is beneficial to state that face validity involves a subjective assessment of the scale ability to measure what it is supposed to measure (Hair *et al.* 2003). Further, as the measures used in this study are adapted from other studies, such concerns were dealt with when the original measures were developed, which were discussed earlier. This part of piloting was made on the English version of the questionnaire. Through the process of developing the questionnaire, two academic experts in the field of business research approved the face validity for this questionnaire.

The Arabic version of the questionnaire was piloted among a purposive sample. Purposive sample, sometimes referred to as a judgement sample, involves selecting sample units for a specific purpose (Hair *et al.* 2003). The sample consisted of four Jordanian civil servants who had experience in conducting research and developing questionnaires. They were asked to report their opinions about the questionnaire clarity, layout, and length, and to provide their suggestions for improvement. Further, they were asked to indicate whether any

of the statements in the questionnaire might imply a criticism to the government, which in turn can affect, negatively, the response rate.

Those persons involved in piloting process considered the questionnaire clear and understandable. However, some suggestions were provided regarding the format of the filtering instructions. Minor changes were made regarding the format of the filtering instructions. Specifically, these instructions were printed in bold letters. They highlighted that 5-point Likert scales are the most used scale when surveying civil servants. Regarding the length of the questionnaire, they reported that answering the questionnaire would take between 15 to 20 minutes, which was considered as reasonable. This estimated time to answer the questionnaire was provided in the covering letter accompanying the questionnaire. No comments were provided about interpreting any item as criticizing or disagreeing with the civil service bureau. A copy of the final version (after piloting) of the translated questionnaire and its covering letters is presented in Appendix B.

6.8.7 Research ethics concerns

At the beginning of this study, the Business School Research Ethics officer was consulted regarding the ethical aspects of this study, and the research plan has been approved. Later, before conducting the fieldwork of this study, the questionnaire and its covering letter were approved by the Research Ethics Committee of Oxford Brookes University.

As a prerequisite for conducting the survey, the University Research Ethics Committee at Oxford Brookes University suggested adding the following paragraph to the covering letter (respondent information letter).

This research has been reviewed by the University Research Ethics Committee at Oxford Brookes University. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact the Chair of the committee on ethics@brookes.ac.uk or telephone the Secretary to the committee on 00441865 4445.

In addition, they suggested notifying the respondents that some of them may find some questions distressing or may raise some personal issues, and if it is the case, referring them to a consultant at their local Labour Office for free advice and support. These suggestions were followed.

6.9 Data from secondary sources

As discussed in Section 6.4.3, to shed more light on the ESTEDA'A context, secondary data were obtained from the Jordanian Civil Service Bureau and the Jordanian Department of Statistics. These data were presented in Chapter 4. However, secondary data were used to measure one of the variables: unemployment rates.

6.9.1 Unemployment rates

This variable was measured by the corresponding unemployment rates for each respondent according to his/her ESTEDA'A year, gender, and educational level. This variable is used in testing hypothesis 1(e).

6.10 Data analysis

The process of data analysis will be carried out through the following steps. First, data entry is done after considering the usability of returned questionnaires. The usable questionnaires are numbered and the reported answers are entered by the researcher according to the stated coding system, which is printed on the questionnaire. Data entry was undertaken by the use of Microsoft Excel programme, which enabled checking for errors at the time of entry. This process is done by setting data validation criteria, which reduces the chances of measurement error to occur (Hair *et al.*, 2003). For example, if the answering scale ranges between 1 and 5, the entry of any other value will be considered invalid and consequently a message will be displayed stating that the entry is invalid. After the data entry is completed, the resultant data matrix (items x cases) is checked against the questionnaire with the help of an assistant.

The second step involves reporting response rate of the sample. This part is dealt with in Section 7.2.1. The third step involves considering the possibility of non-response bias. This step is done by comparing the characteristics (gender and ESTEDA'A year) of those who returned their questionnaires with the characteristics of the population. In addition, in considering item-non-response bias (not responding to some items), the characteristics of those who returned full-answered questionnaires are compared to the characteristics of those who returned item-missing questionnaires. The absence of significant differences in these comparisons indicates that there is no response bias. This step is reported in Section 7.2.2.

The fourth step deals with justifying the use of parametric methods, and not violating the assumption of normality. This part is reported in Sections 7.3 and 7.4, respectively. The fifth step pertains to combining items into scales, which is done by using Factor Analysis. This step is reported in Section 7.5. In the sixth step, the concerns about the goodness of measures are dealt with by considering the criteria of reliability and validity. This step is reported in Section 7.6.

The final steps is concerned with addressing research aims and testing their relevant hypotheses, which is dealt with in Sections 7.7-7.9.1.

6.10.1 Methods of data analysis and their rationale

One of the methods used in data analysis is Chi-square test, which is used to detect the significance of the difference between two proportions of independent samples (Berenson and Levine, 1999). This method is used in addressing non-response bias.

The *t*-test is used to assess the statistical significance of the difference between two independent sample means (Hair *et al.*, 1998). This method is used in considering non-response bias and in addressing the first research aim.

Multiple Regression, by which the changes in the dependent can be predicted by the changes in the independent variables, is suitable when there is a single

numeric dependent variable and two or more independent variables (Hair *et al.*, 1998). Beta coefficients are used to assess the relative importance of the independent variables included in the equation, which eliminates the problem of dealing with different units of measurement for the variables (Hair *et al.*, 1998). Hierarchical Multiple Regression, known as hierarchical analysis (Cohen and Cohen, 1983), are used to test hypothesis 1(a), hypotheses 1(c) - 1(g), and hypothesis 2(a). This method (hierarchical analysis) permits determining the contribution of each independent variable, or set of variables, to the variance in the dependant variables (unique R^2) (Cohen and Cohen, 1983).

As the presence of autocorrelation amongst residuals of a regression model implies a violation of the independence of errors assumption (Berenson and Levine, 1999), the Durbin-Watson statistic is computed for all regression models and compared to scheduled values. The Durbin-Watson statistic (D) is used to detect the existence of autocorrelation, which means that the residuals of the regression model are correlated (Berenson and Levine, 1999). The value of D will be close to 2 if there is no autocorrelation, close to 0 if there is a positive autocorrelation, and approach its maximum value of 4 if there is a negative correlation.

The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) indicates the effect of other independent variables on the dependent variable (Hair *et al.*, 1998). VIF is used to detect the existence of multicollinearity, which represents 'the degree to which any variable's effect can be predicted or accounted for by the other variables in the analysis' (Hair *et al.*, 1998, p. 24). The higher VIF scores the higher the multicollinearity, specifically, Marquardt (1980) suggests that a VIF value of 10 implies high multicollinearity.

Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) is able to detect combined differences across groups that univariate test may not detect (Hair *et al.*, 1998). For example, Two-way ANOVA is the appropriate test to detect the significance of the effect of an interaction between two categorical independent variables on a

numeric dependent variable (Baron and Kenny, 1986; Sá, 2003). This method is used in testing hypothesis 1(b) and hypothesis 2(b).

6.11 Summary of Chapter 6

In this chapter, after reviewing the two main research philosophies (positivism and constructivism) positivism was adopted as research philosophy for this study. The ontological, epistemological, and axiological implications of positivism were addressed. For example, this study seeks the objective, external, and pre-existing reality in a way that the researcher and what is researched are independents and in a value-free manner.

To decide the appropriate research approach for this study, the two research approaches deduction and induction were explored. The deductive approach owes more to positivism and involves starting with the theory and testing hypotheses, which provides initial clarity about what is to be investigated (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). On the other hand, the inductive approach is associated more with constructionism, and involves developing a theory by looking at the same event in different situations, which maintains flexibility and can provide explanations and insights (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). Since there are several theories regarding downsizing and its fairness that can be tested in the context of ESTEDA'A, though ESTEDA'A had not been addressed before, and since the second and third research aims imply causal relationships, deduction was deemed as the most appropriate approached for this study.

The options of research strategies can be seen as limited by choosing deduction, which entails statistically testable hypotheses that need quantitative. Consequently, the need for qualitative data limits the data collecting methods. Survey, which can be used for data collection from a large sample of individuals (Hair *et al.*, 2003), was deemed as the most appropriate research strategy to be used. Surveys maintain accountability and transparency, which allow detailed criticism and facilitate systematic refinement of survey methods and techniques (Hakim, 2000). There are four sources of error associated with survey: sampling

error, coverage error, measurement error, and non-response error (Dillman, 2000). The first three sources of error were dealt with in this chapter whereas the fourth will be dealt with in Chapter 7.

The purpose of this study is mainly hypothesis testing (Sekaran, 2000) or explanatory (Saunders *et al.*, 2007); nonetheless, some data are for descriptive purpose. The data are collected at one point in time, which is most suitable to the research aims; therefore, the survey of this study is cross-sectional.

A self-administered postal questionnaire was chosen as the main method for data collection, especially that not all respondents have access to a fax or the Internet. Other data collection methods were preliminary interviews and secondary data.

In this study, the population constitutes of the 2,803 ESEDA'A leavers who have been awarded ESTEDA'A on or before 1st August 2004. At the beginning, the endeavours were made to survey the whole population through searching for their names in the general telephone book, contacting them by telephone, asking their informed consent to participate, and, if accepted to participate, asking for their convenient postal address. Nonetheless, following the previous steps implied that contacting the whole population is impracticable in respect of time and budget constraints, which indicated the need for sampling.

To generalise from the sample to the population, using a probability sample is essential (e.g., Berenson and Levine, 1999; Dillman, 2000; Hair *et al.*, 2003). The appropriate sample size is decided based on a predetermined acceptable sample error, homogeneity of population, and the required confidence level (Dillman, 2000; Hair *et al.*, 2003). The required sample size was computed at 267. With an expected response rate around 30% (Saunders *et al.*, 2007), the targeted sample was around 843. An updated list containing the names of ESTEDA'A leavers was used as a sampling frame, which would reduce coverage error (Dillman, 2000). Consequently, a stratified-systemic-random sample of 843 (30% of the population) ex-civil servants who have been awarded ESTEDA'A

(ESTEDA'A leavers), stratified by the year of awarding ESTEDA'A were surveyed.

While developing the questionnaire, several issues were considered that aims at reducing measurement errors and increasing response rate. For example, four items of the questionnaire were reversed to reduce the possibility of response pattern in answering the questions (Oppenheim, 1992). Also, the first four questions were applicable to all respondents, which may reduce the possibility of not completing the questionnaire (Dillman, 2000). Further, it was important to ensure that the essential information is included in the covering letter, which should be written in a simple language (especially when translated to Arabic) that suits all levels of education that respondents may hold.

A part of the items included in the questionnaire pertains to general information, which is used to describe the completed sample. The other items are used to measure certain variables that belong to one or more hypotheses. The measured variables, including the one that was obtained from secondary data, and their corresponding hypotheses are listed in Table 6.2.

Some data that describe respondents' perception of ESTEDA'A were collected for descriptive purpose. The items through which these data were collected were based on organisational justice theories and implied in downsizing literature.

As Arabic is the first language in Jordan, the questionnaire was translated to Arabic to minimise the possibility of non-response due to language difficulties. As the author of the questionnaire is an Arabic native, this can help to ensure that the specific meanings included in the questionnaire are fully rendered in the Arabic version. Therefore, the parallel-translation technique was deemed as the most suitable to use, in respect of time, cost and finding the required translators. For language-gender considerations, two versions of the covering letters were prepared: one to address female respondents and the other to address male respondents.

Table 6.2 List of the variables with their relevant hypotheses, and items on questionnaire

Variable name	Hypothesis	Items on questionnaire
Gender	All hypotheses, except H1 (b) and H2 (b)	q1
Age in the year of ESTEDA'A	All hypotheses, except H1 (b) and H2 (b)	q57
Wanting to work after ESTEDA'A	H1 (b) and H2(b)	q7
Working after ESTEDA'A	H1 (b) and H2(b)	q8
New job level	H1 (c) and H2(a)	q17-q28
New job type1 (fulltime/part-time)	H1 (c) and H2(b)	q15
New job type2 (Permanent/temporary)	H1 (c) and H2(b)	Q16
Psychological need to work	H1 (a) and H2(a)	q29-q33
Locus of control	H1 (a) and H2(a)	q34-q45
Prior organisational commitment	H1 (a) and H2(a)	q48, q50, and q52
Prior job satisfaction	H1 (a) and H2(a)	q46, q47, q49, q51, q53, and q54
Positive and negative affectivities	H1 (a) and H2(a)	q55 (it has 20 sub-items)
Having a job before leaving	H1 (f)	q10
Number of dependents	H1 (a) and H2(a)	q62
Participation in family income	H1 (a) and H2(a)	q63
Being a main breadwinner	H1 (a) and H2(b)	q63 (recoded into dichotomous)
Change in family income	H1 (f)	q66
ESTEDA'A type	H2 (a) and H2(b)	q67
Reason for requesting ESTEDA'A	H1 (d)	q68
Reason for awarding ESTEDA'A	H1 (a) and H2(b)	q69
Informal advanced notice	H1 (f), H1(g), and h2 (b)	q70
Distributive justice	All hypotheses	q78, q79, q82, andq83
Procedural justice	All hypotheses	q71-q77
Unemployment rates	H1 (c) and H2(b)	Secondary Data

Two academic experts in business research piloted the English version of the questionnaire for its face validity, which was approved. The Arabic version of the questionnaire was piloted among a purposive sample that consisted of four Jordanian civil servants who had experience in conducting research and developing questionnaires. The piloting aimed at checking for the questionnaire clarity, layout, and length, and whether it implies a criticism to the government, which in tern can affect, negatively, the response rate. As a result, minor changes were made regarding the format of the filtering instructions.

The Business School Research Ethics officer was consulted regarding the ethics aspects of this study, and the research plan has been approved. The Research Ethics Committee of Oxford Brookes University also approved the questionnaire and its covering letter.

The next chapter will deal with data analysis. The first step in data analysis is data entry, which will be done by the researcher after considering the usability of returned questionnaires. The second step involves reporting response rate of the sample. The third step involves considering the possibility of non-response bias. The fourth step deals with justifying the use of parametric methods, and not violating the assumption of normality. The fifth step pertains to combining items into scales, which is done by using Factor Analysis. The sixth step concerns testing the goodness of measures through the criteria of reliability and validity. The final step is concerned with addressing research aims and testing their relevant hypotheses. The methods that will be used in data analysis are Chi-square test, *t*-test Hierarchical Multiple Regression, Durbin-Watson statistic, Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), and Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA).

In the next chapter, the results of data analysis are reported. This includes addressing research aims and testing their relevant hypotheses.

Chapter Seven: Data Analysis

7.1 An overview of the chapter

This chapter reports the results of analysing the collected data. Firstly, a description of the sample is provided, which includes response rates, considering the possibility of non-response error, and a summary of sample demographics that subsumes respondents' working patterns after ESTEDA'A.

Before addressing the research aims of this study, a justification for using parametric methods on the collected data is provided, followed by a discussion about not violating the assumption of normality regarding the data. As prerequisites to make rigorous inferences about the results of data analyses, Factor Analysis, reliability, and validity are considered regarding the multi-items constructs of this study.

The first research aim, which has no relevant hypothesis, is addressed by describing respondents' attitudes to, and perceptions of, ESTEDA'A. In addressing the second and third research aims, their corresponding hypotheses are tested. The discussion of the results of hypotheses testing is presented in the next chapter.

7.2 Sample description

7.2.1 Response rate

As stated in Section 6.6, a stratified random sample of 843 ESTEDA'A leavers was chosen for data collection. Out of these 843 ESTEDA'A leavers, 609 (72%) were contacted by phone (or their relative in case of those who were dead or abroad), of which 488 (80%) accepted to participate, 66 (11%) were unreachable (abroad or very sick), 41 (7%) declined, and finally, 14 (2%) were ineligible (dead or not ESTEDA'A leavers) (see Table 7.1).

Out of the 488 questionnaires that were sent, only 7 were not delivered because the addressees were not known in the given addresses and 307 returned their questionnaires partially or fully filled. Because one respondent

did not answer the question of ESTEDA'A type, besides other questions, his questionnaire was excluded from the analyses. Response rate was (= 306/843) 36% of the sample and the active response rate (Saunders *et al.*, 2003) was (= 306/522) 58% of the active sample (sample size less unreachable and ineligible cases equalling 522). Out of the 41 who declined to participate, two females declared that husband's objection was a reason for refusal. Another female declined to participate since her father died on the same day when she was contacted. One male declared through his secretary that he was appointed as a Minister and has no time to participate, whereas the other rejecters (37) did not disclose any reason for their refusals.

Table 7.1 Details of questionnaires distribution

	Numbers	%Contacted	% Sample	Active Sample *
Stratified random sample	843			
Contacted	609	100%	72.3%	
<i>Of which</i>				
Declined	41	6.7%	4.9%	41
Abroad (unreachable)	64	10.5%	7.6%	0
Very sick (unreachable)	2	0.3%	0.2%	0
Dead (ineligible)	8	1.4%	1%	0
Survivor ** (ineligible)	2	0.3%	0.2%	0
Retired (ineligible)	4	0.7%	0.5%	0
Accepted and sent to	488	80.1%	57.9%	488
Less not delivered				(7)
Total				522

* Equals sample size less unreachable and ineligible cases
 ** Survivor means that this person has appealed his/her ESTEDA'A and consequently it was cancelled.

Although it is recommended to use follow-up letters to increase the response rate (e.g., Dillman, 2000; Saunders *et al.*, 2003), this recommendation was not adopted for the following reasons.

- 1- Sending a questionnaire to a respondent was preceded by several tries to find the telephone number of that respondent, contact him/her by telephone, asking for his/her informed consent to participate, and asking for their convenient postal address (see Sections 6.5 and 6.6). Thereby, questionnaires were sent in daily waves over a period of 49 days, and the first returned questionnaire was received after 22 days of starting.

- 2- Because of promised anonymity, it was impossible to determine who did not return the questionnaire.
- 3- Some respondents apologized for the delay through telephone calls or letters attached to the questionnaire, attributing the delay to the mail service.
- 4- The relatively poor quality of the mail service is known to almost everyone, hence if one respondent received a follow-up letter with a questionnaire, probably would think that the questionnaire that s/he sent was lost, and then might fill another one and send it again.
- 5- Some (34) of the questionnaires were sent to temporary addresses.

7.2.2 Non-response error (bias)

As discussed in Section 6.4, non-response error (bias) is one of the survey errors. This source of error results when people who respond to a survey are different from sampled individuals who did not respond, 'in a way relevant to the study' (Dillman, 2000, p. 11). Therefore, the most important issue in dealing with non-response is to make sure that the reasons for not responding are not connected to the research topic, i.e. there is no response bias (Oppenheim, 1992). To check for the existence of response bias, it is suggested (e.g., Kervin, 1992) that the sample distribution in term of demographics is compared to the population distribution. As the population distributions regarding gender and years of ESTEDA'A are available, such comparisons were possible. There was a non-significant difference between population and sample distributions in respect to the year¹² of awarding ESTEDA ($\chi^2 = 15.639$; $df = 9$; $p = 0.075$); nonetheless, this was not the case in respect to gender ($\chi^2 = 4.952$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.026$) resulting in a lower response rate for the females. However, it is important to underpin that this significant difference in respect of gender was absent when comparing the population to

¹² To apply chi square test, it was essential to combine the years 1988-1995 in one cell to prevent having cells with expected cases less than 5.

those who the questionnaires were sent to ($\chi^2 = .346$; $df = 1$; $p = 0.300$), i.e., the procedures (discussed in Section 6.5) that were followed to contact the respondents did not bring about bias regarding gender. A lower response rate for females is expected in an Arabic society, where 'family honor depends mainly on the conformity of its female members to certain norms and values' (Miles, 2002, p. 413). Likewise, one-fifth (24) of the contacted females were reached through their male relatives, specifically, the questionnaires were addressed to them via their husbands or brothers, which may imply that their decisions to participate were after their male relatives' consent. In addition, in three cases, the male relatives denied knowing the addressed females, which appeared afterwards not to be the true.

To further explore the non-response potential bias regarding other background factors (age, ESTEDA'A type and educational level), three statistical comparisons are suggested (e.g., Kervin, 1992) when the information about the population is not available. A comparison can be made between, (a) the questionnaires that are received before the follow-up letters and those that are received after, (b) the questionnaires that are received later than the stated date and those that are not, or, (c) the questionnaires that have item non-response and those that are full. As there were no follow-up letters, and the questionnaire were sent in waves, it was necessary to use the third option. Hence, item non-response is explored to eliminate the existence of item-non-response bias and non-response bias as well.

Item non-response

As refusing to participate has potential bias if the reason behind that decision is connected to the research topic, this would apply to declining to answer some questions of the questionnaire (Oppenheim, 1992). To eliminate the possibility of item-non-response bias to exist, a list of questions with some missing data is prepared (Oppenheim, 1992). Twenty three (26%) questions had no missing data, and 73 (84%) questions had 5% or less of missing data. Only two questions had missing data more than 10%, namely q55 (12%) and q70 (17%), which pertain to positive and negative affectivities and receiving informal advance notice, respectively. Regarding q55, the missing data were

probably attributed to the sensitivity of the questions, which requires stating personal experience of certain moods, especially that some of its 20 items were unanswered selectively. Regarding q70, several reasons can be assumed to affect the respondents' decision to answer this particular question (e.g., they might considered such information as confidential); nevertheless, it is important to make sure that being a voluntary case was not among these reasons.

By using a χ^2 test to compare the characteristics of respondents with uncompleted questionnaires to the characteristics of the respondent with completed questionnaires, there were no significant differences in respect to gender ($\chi^2= 1.339$; $df= 1$; $p= 0.247$), ESTEDA'A type ($\chi^2= 1.933$; $df= 1$; $p= 0.164$) and ESTEDA'A year¹³ ($\chi^2= 7.297$; $df= 7$; $p= 0.399$). Further, by using t -test (for age) and Mann-Whitney-test (for educational level), there were no significant differences in respect to age and educational level between the respondents with complete questionnaires and those with the incomplete ones ($p= .754$, and $.442$ respectively).

Therefore, since there are no significant differences between incomplete questionnaire and complete ones, and as 'even a very high response rate is no guarantee against bias' (Oppenheim, 1992, p. 280), it can be concluded that there is a small possibility for item-non-response-bias regarding the factors of gender, year of ESTEDA, ESSTEDA'A type, age, and educational level. Consequently, in order to deal with the missing data regarding statistical analysis, cases will be excluded listwise, which 'refers to the deletion of all the data of an entire case from the analysis because it is in some way(s) incomplete' (Oppenheim, 1992, p. 280)

¹³ To apply chi square test, it was essential to combine the years 1988-1995 and 2003-2004 in two separate cells to prevent having cells with expected cases less than 5.

7.2.3 Sample’s demographics, working patterns, and ESTEDA’A details

The sample constitutes of 250 (81.7%) males and 56 (18,3%) females. As the rank system adopted by the Jordanian Civil Service has changed more than once over the years after the start of awarding ESTEDA’A, and since it is impossible to recode responses to questions about employee’s rank consistently through the years to make them comparable, therefore, these questions are excluded from the analyses.

As discussed in Section 4.2.2, a part of Jordanian civil servants have their pensions provided according to the rules of Jordanian Civil Service bureau, whereas the other part have their pension according to the rules of Jordanian Social Security Corporation. However, all of the respondents have their pensions provided according to the rules of the Jordanian Civil Service, which is expected as none of the 5 ESTEDA’A leavers who receive their pensions according to the rules of the Jordanian Social Security Corporation were in the sample.

Thirty-five respondents worked for 14 years or less as civil servants, whereas 269 of them worked for 20 years or less. The majority (78.3%) did not work in the private sector before joining the Jordanian Civil Service. The average age in the ESTEDA’A year was 43, with 58.2% (178) of respondents were at that age or less. One-third (101) of respondents had bachelor degree in ESTEDA’A year, whereas 51% (156) of them had educational level less than bachelor degree. The vast majority of respondents were married (96%) in ESTEDA’A year, whereas one-fifth of them (60) were members of a professional association, of which 75% (45) were engineers. Details are shown in Table 7.2.

Regarding ESTEDA’A type, 135 (44%) persons were awarded ESTEDA’A compulsorily (compulsory cases) and 171 (56%) were awarded ESTEDA’A voluntarily (voluntary cases). There was a significant association between ESTEDA’A type and wanting to work ($\chi^2= 11.987$; $df= 1$; $p= 0.000$). Specifically, among the compulsory cases, there were 7.6% (10) who did not

want to work after ESTEDA'A and 92.4% (122) who wanted to work (three persons did not answer this question). On the other hand, there were 22.2% (38) of the voluntary cases who did not want to work and 77.8% (133) who wanted to work after ESTEDA'A.

Table 7.2 Sample Demographic in the year of ESTEDA'A

Years in Civil Service		≤14	≤15	≤16	≤17	≤18	≤19	≤20		Missing	Min	Max	Mean
	No.	35	85	113	140	167	179	269		1	12	27	17.7
Years in the private sector		0		1- 5		6 –10		11--15		Missing	Min	Max	Mean
	No.	238		55		17		4		2	0	15	0.817
Age		≤35	≤37	≤39	≤ 41	≤ 43	≤ 45	≤ 47	≤ 49	Missing	Min	Max	Mean
	No.	16	39	79	119	178	219	246	265	8	29	60	43
Education level		High School	Two-year Diploma		Bachelor Degree		Post-bachelor Diploma		Masters Degree		Doctoral Degree		Missing
	No.	67	90		101		17		12		18		1
Marital status		Married		Divorced		Single							
	No.	294		3		9							
Professional association membership		Engineers			Doctors		Agricultural Engineers		Lawyers		Apothecaries		
	No.	45			3		5		3		1		
		Veterinarians				Nurses and Midwives				Not a member		Missing	
	No.	1				2				243		3	

Further, there was a significant association between ESTEDA'A type and working after ESTEDA'A ($\chi^2= 4.345$; $df= 1$; $p= 0.037$). Specifically, among the compulsory cases, there were 13.4% (18) who did not work after ESTEDA'A and 86.6% (116) who worked (one person did not answer this question). On the other hand, there were 22.8% (39) of the voluntary cases who did not work and 77.2% (132) who worked after ESTEDA'A.

The results of Chi-square test showed that there wasn't a significant association between ESTEDA'A type and having a job before leaving ($\chi^2= 2.138$; $df= 1$; $p= 0.144$). Specifically, there were 31 (26.7%) persons among the compulsory cases who worked after ESTEDA'A but did not have a job before leaving and 85 (73.3%) who had a job before leaving. On the other hand, there were 35.4% (46) of the voluntary cases who worked after ESTEDA'A but did not have a job before leaving and 64.6% (84) who had a job before leaving (one person did not answer this question).

The majority (212) of respondents who worked after ESTEDA'A had one job, whereas 34 of them had more than one job (two persons did not answer this question). Further, among who worked after ESTEDA'A, 71% (217) of them were employed when they participated in this study, of which 80.6% (171) had permanent/fulltime jobs and 9.5 % (20) had temporary/fulltime jobs.

Job security was the most important reason to join the Jordanian Civil Service for 28.8% (88) of the respondents, an important reason for 23.5% (70) of them, and one reason for 16.3% (50) of them.

As explained in Section 6.8.3, only those who worked after ESTEDA'A, excluding those who found a job before leaving their previous jobs, are eligible to indicate how long they waited before start looking for a new job, and how long they waited or expected to wait to find a new job (q12-q14). Therefore, the total number of eligible respondents is 77. Nearly one-fifth of them (15) did not wait to start looking for a new job, whereas 27.3% (21) of them waited for 3 months or more. Twenty-four of them found a new job within one month, and one-third (26) expected to find a new job within one month.

By comparing family income before and after ESTEDA'A, 53.3% (163) of the respondents reported that their incomes after ESTEDA'A became more or slightly more than before ESTEDA'A, 13% (40) reported the income was the same, and 32.7%(100) reported that their incomes after ESTEDA'A became less or slightly less than before ESTEDA'A. There was no significant difference across ESTEDA'A type in answering this question ($\chi^2= 8.078$; $df= 4$; $p= 0.089$).

Regarding the reason to request ESTEDA'A, as only voluntary cases were eligible to answer this question, 49.1 % (84) of them reported 'another job', whereas 17% (29) reported 'changing your life', 14.6% (25) reported 'family issues', 9.4% (16) reported 'being tired' and, 2.3% (4) reported 'illness' to be the reason. As this question enabled multi answers, there were 11 questionnaires with multi answers. One respondent checked all the reasons except 'illness'. Two respondents chose 'family issues', 'being tired' and 'changing your life'. Four respondents chose 'family issues' and 'being tired'.

One respondent chose 'family issues' and 'illness'. Finally, three respondents chose 'family issues' and 'changing your life'. There were 69 respondents who answered the open-answer part of this question labelled other factors, 29% (20) of them indicated privatisation to be the reason (details are presented in Appendix C).

Regarding the reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A, 73.3% (99) of the compulsory cases reported 'organisational needs', whereas 22.2% (38) of the voluntary cases did the same. On the other hand, 59.1% (101) of the voluntary cases reported 'your needs' to be the reason, while 6.7% (9) of the compulsory cases did the same. Only one compulsory case and one voluntary case reported 'your performance' to be the reason, nonetheless, they printed notes implying that they were overqualified. As this question enabled multi answers, there were 5 questionnaires with multi answers. One respondent chose 'your performance' and 'your needs', whereas four respondents chose 'organisational needs' and 'your needs'. There were 93 respondents who answered the open-answer part of this question labelled other factors, 49.5% (46) of them indicated 'privatisation', whereas 17.2% (16) of them indicated 'bad manager' to be the reason (details are presented in Appendix C).

7.3 Justification to use parametric methods on ordinal data

As with most business research, Likert-like scales were used mainly in this study to measure respondents' perceptions and attitudes. Such scales are categorized as ordinal scales.

It has become customary in business research, however, to treat the scale as if it were interval. Empirical evidence that people treat the intervals between points on such scales as being equal in magnitude provides justification for treating them as measures on an interval scale. (Hair *et al.*, 2003, p. 157)

It is important to understand that this justification applies to data measured on Likert-like scales, but not to all ordinal scales (e.g., educational level). Therefore, in this study, parametric methods are used only on data that were measured on Likert-like scales.

7.4 The assumption of normality

As normality is an essential assumption to use parametric statistical tests, it is imperative to insure that this assumption is not violated. Although specialists (e.g. Berenson and Levine, 1999; Hair *et al.*, 1998; Norušis, 1995) recommend assessing the normality for all variables, they acknowledge that, on the first hand the effects of non-normality tend to diminish in large sample sizes, and on the other hand, the significance of normality tests becomes more sensitive in such cases (i.e., even small differences may be statistically significant). Consequently, to assume normality, Norušis (1995) recommend relying on Central Limit Theorem, which is also known as Levy-Lindeberg theorem (Sá, 2003). According to Central Limit Theorem,

for sufficiently large sample ($n \geq 30$), the sample means will be distributed around the population mean approximately in a normal distribution. (Cooper and Emory, 1995, p. 211)

A variable can be assumed to be normally distributed in two cases: first, if the original variable, i.e. from the population, is normally distributed, and second, if the sample is sufficiently large (Norušis, 1995). Thereby, as the sample size in this study is sufficiently large ($N= 306$), it can be concluded that according to Central Limit Theorem, normality assumption is not violated.

7.5 Factor analysis

To explore the data and construct rigorous concepts, Factor Analysis technique is used. As a multivariate method, the primary purpose of Factor Analysis (FA) 'is to define the underlying structure of the data matrix' (Hair *et al.*, 1998, p. 90). When a set of underlying dimensions is defined (known as factors), Factor Analysis addresses the problem of analyzing the structure of inter-correlations among the measured items (Hair *et al.*, 1998). The main two uses of Factor Analysis are data summarization and data reduction. In data summarizing, Factor Analysis 'derives underlying dimensions that, when interpreted and understood, describe the data in a much smaller number of concepts than the original' items (Hair *et al.*, 1998, p. 90). Consequently, by

calculating these dimensions, they can substitute the original items to achieve the second use, data reduction (Hair *et al.*, 1998).

As discussed in Chapter 6, all the items that were measured via the questionnaire belong to a certain scale that measures one studied construct and are adapted from other studies. Therefore, Factor Analysis is used in this study to delineate the items that measure each studied construct and consequently determine their scales.

7.5.1 Factor analysis requirement

Regarding sufficient sample size for Factor Analysis in order to avoid deriving factors that are sample specific and not generalizable, it is recommended to obtain the highest cases-per-variables ratios (at least ten-to-one ratio), and not fewer than 50 observations in any event (Hair *et al.*, 1998). To determine the appropriateness of Factor Analysis through examining the presence of correlations among the variables, the Bartlett's test of sphericity was applied. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) was computed. The KMO index ranges from 0 to 1, where 1 means that each variable is perfectly predicted without errors by the other variables, hence high scores reflect more adequacy (Hair *et al.*, 1998). According to Kaiser's (1974, p.35) calibrating of the index, a result in the .90s is considered as 'marvelous', in the .80s is considered as 'meritorious', in .70s is considered as 'middling', in the .60s is considered as 'mediocre', in the .50s is considered as 'miserable' and below .50 is 'unacceptable'. These requirements are assessed for each applied Factor Analysis.

7.5.2 Extracting factors

Deciding the extracting method to use in Factor Analysis (i.e., to use component analysis or common factor analysis) depends upon the aim of using Factor Analysis. Component analysis is used when the aim is to summarize most of the original items in a minimum number of factors, whereas common factor analysis is used when the aim is 'to identify underlying factors or dimensions that reflect what the variables share in common' (Hair *et al.*, 1998, p. 100). As Factor Analysis is used in this study to

identify the items that consist the scale of each studied construct, therefore, component analysis, which is also known as principal component analysis (Hair *et al.*, 1998) is appropriate method to use.

7.5.3 Number of factors

To determine the number of extracted factors, three criteria are used in this study: latent root (Eigenvalue), scree test, and a priori criterion. Latent root criterion, the most widely used, dictates that any factor with Eigenvalue greater than or equals 1 is considered significant, otherwise it is considered insignificant and thereby is disregarded (Hair *et al.*, 1998). The second criterion, scree test, 'is derived by plotting the latent roots against the number of factors in their order of extraction', where the 'cutoff point' to determine the number of factors to be extracted is 'at which the curve begins to straighten out' (Hair *et al.*, 1998, p. 104). Finally, a priori criterion by which the researcher determines how many factors to be extracted is justified in certain cases (e.g., testing a theory or hypothesis) (Hair *et al.*, 1998). It is also justified when the number of factors is known (e.g., replicating another researcher's work) (Hair *et al.*, 1998).

In this study, Eigenvalue and scree test are used in the preliminary Factor Analyses, whereas a priori criterion is used in the final analysis to reach the most representative and parsimonious number of factors that is consistent with the literature.

7.5.4 Rotation of factors

Factor rotation is an essential tool in interpreting factors (Hair *et al.*, 1998). There are two types of rotation methods: orthogonal rotation and oblique rotation (Hair *et al.*, 1998). In orthogonal methods independence between items is maintained (i.e., axes are maintained at 90 degrees), whereas in oblique it is not the case. Unlike the orthogonal rotation methods, the oblique rotation methods 'are not as well developed and are still subject to considerably controversy' (Hair *et al.*, 1998, p. 109). Thereby in this study, an orthogonal method is used, specifically VARIMAX method, which 'has proved

very successful as an analytic approach to obtaining an orthogonal rotation of factors' (Hair *et al.*, 1998, p. 110).

Significance of factor loading

Hair *et al.*, (1998) suggest that the minimum level of significance is reached by loading greater than .30 in absolute term. However, assessing statistical significance of factor loading at .05 significance level and .80 power level, a loading of .35 and .40 in absolute term are significant for sample sizes of 250 and 200 respectively (Hair *et al.*, 1998, p. 112). As will be seen in Sections 7.5.6 through 7.5.12, the sample sizes for the analysed constructs varied between 234 (employment commitment) and 304 (prior organisational commitment). Since the lowest number of cases was 235 (i.e., between 200 and 250), and to have a consistent rule through analysed construct, therefore, the minimum level of significance is reached by loading greater than .40 in absolute term (Hair *et al.*, 1998, p. 112).

7.5.5 Interpreting factor matrices

According to Hair *et al.*, (1998) recommendations, the following procedures are followed to determine the items that constitute a summated scale for each construct (variable), in other words, which item/s is/are deleted off the summated scale. Firstly, all significant loadings for each item on each factor are identified. Secondly, any item that has no significant loading on any factor is deleted. Thirdly any item that loaded significantly on more than one factor is deleted. Finally, based on the appropriateness to represent its items, each factor is labelled. As the previous procedures are done, a summated scale for each variable is calculated.

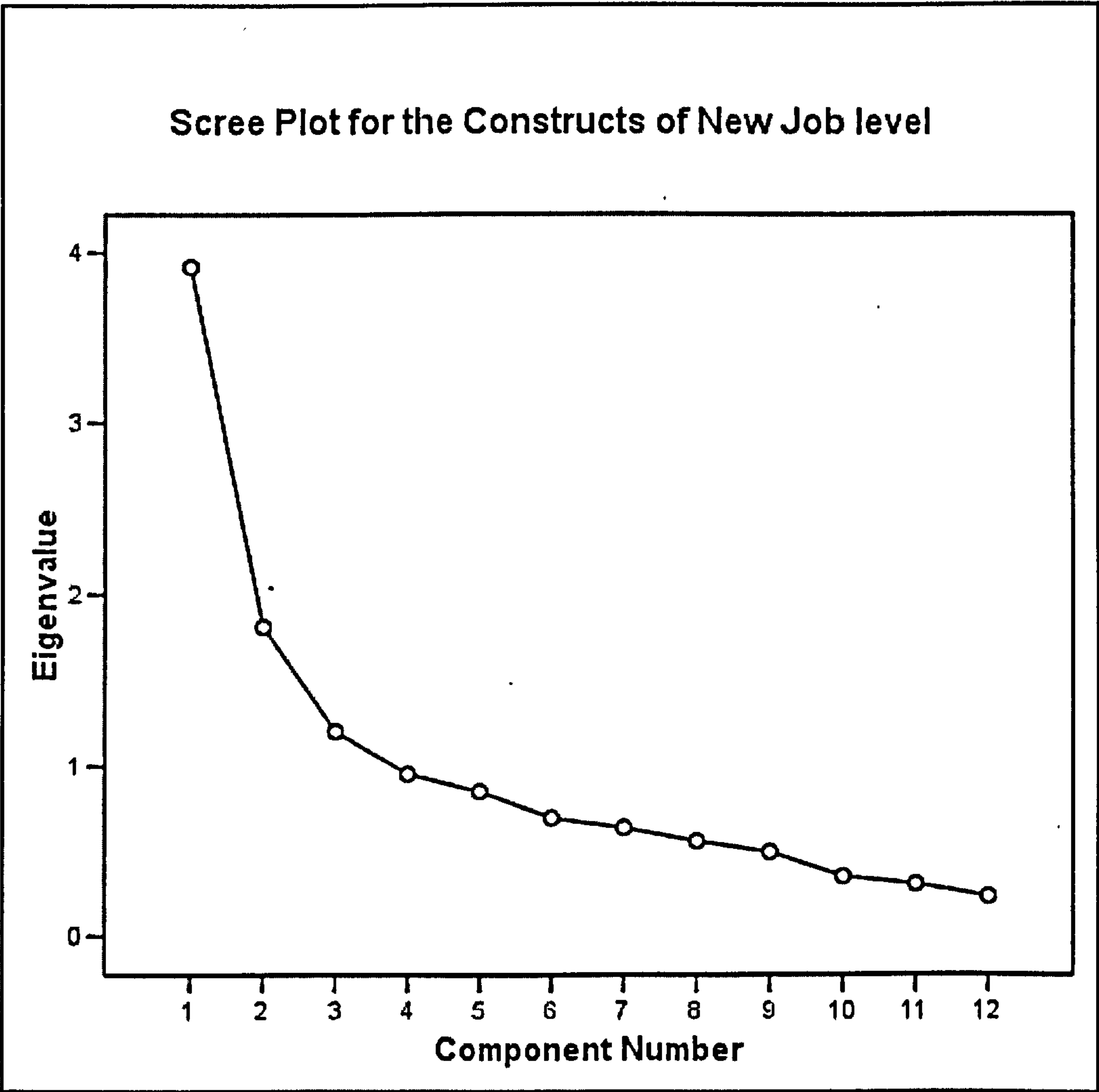
7.5.6 Constructs of new job level

Initially, the items that were used to measure this variable were 12 in number. Cases-per-variables ratio for this test was $234/12 = 19.5\text{-per-}1$, fulfilling the two minimum requirements of at least ten-to-one ratio, and not fewer than 50 observations in any event (Hair *et al.*, 1998). The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was computed at .806, which is considered as 'meritorious' (Kaiser,

1974, p.35). The Bartlett's test of sphericity was computed at $\chi^2= 883.148$ and $df= 66$, at $p= .000$, indicating the appropriateness to use Factor Analysis.

As a result of principal component analysis, the first three factors had Eigenvalues greater than 1 (3.914, 1.813, and 1.203) and their cumulative explained variances were 32.616%, 47.721%, and 57.748% of the whole variance. On the other hand, the scree plot does not show a clear cutoff point (see Figure 7.1). Thereby, the retained factors are 3 in number (see Table 7.3).

Figure 7.1 Scree plot for the constructs of new job level



After factor rotation, as shown in Table 7.3, all items loaded significantly on at least one factor. As item 'compare overall' loaded significantly on more than one factor, it is deleted. On the other hand, although item 'compare fringe benefits' loaded significantly on two factors, it was marginally significant (.438) on factor1 and highly significant (.709) on factor 2; therefore, it is considered

to be loaded on factor 2. The remaining 11 items constitute three factors representing new job level.

The final stage is labeling these factors and calculating their summated scales. Factor 1 constitutes of 4 items: ‘compare supervision by others’, ‘compare chance to use skill’, ‘compare work nature’, and ‘compare work condition’, thereby it is labeled as new job circumstances (NJC). Factor 2 constitutes of 4 items: ‘compare the pay’, ‘compare union representation’, ‘compare fringe benefits’ and ‘compare health insurance’, thereby, it labeled as new job rewards (NJR). Factor 3 constitutes of 3 items: ‘compare nearness to home’, ‘compare working hours’ and ‘compare job security’, thereby it is labeled as new job other attributes (NJOA).

Table 7.3 New job level factor loading

Items	Factors		
	New Job Circumstances	New Job Rewards	New Job Other Attributes
Compare the pay	.350	<u>.705</u>	-.143
Compare supervision by others	<u>.723</u>	.046	-.016
Compare nearness to home	.166	-.214	.421
Compare chance to use skill	<u>.746</u>	.108	.020
Compare union representation	-.024	<u>.590</u>	.196
Compare working hours	-.044	.092	<u>.763</u>
Compare job security	.240	.208	<u>.678</u>
Compare work nature	<u>.777</u>	.013	.309
Compare work conditions	<u>.739</u>	.017	.395
Compare fringe benefits	<u>.438</u>	<u>.709</u>	-.028
Compare health insurance	-.136	<u>.756</u>	.003
Compare overall	<u>.643</u>	<u>.542</u>	.098
% cumulated variance explained by rotated factors	25.5	19.4	12.8

7.5.7 Construct of employment commitment

Initially, the items that were used to measure this variable were 5 in number. Cases-per-variables ratios for this test was 290/5= 58-per-1, fulfilling the two minimum requirements of at least ten-to-one ratio, and not fewer than 50 observations in any event (Hair *et al.*, 1998). The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was computed at .804, which is considered as ‘meritorious’ (Kaiser,

1974, p.35). The Bartlett's test of sphericity was computed at $\chi^2= 489.691$ and $df= 10$, at $p= .000$, indicating the appropriateness to use Factor Analysis.

Figure 7.2 Scree plot for the construct of employment commitment



As a result of principal component analysis, there was only one factor that had Eigenvalue greater than one (2.833), and this factor explains 56.655 % of the total variance. Similarly, the scree plot shows a clear cutoff point at component number 1 (see Figure 7.2). As there is only one factor to be retained, hence there is no need for rotation. Consequently, these items constitute a summated scale for employment commitment construct.

Table 7.4 Employment commitment factor loading

	Factor
Items	Employment Commitment
Even if you won a great deal of money you would continue to work somewhere.	<u>.699</u>
Having a job is very important to you.	<u>.834</u>
You should hate to be unemployed.	<u>.810</u>
You would soon get bored if you had no work to do.	<u>.849</u>
The most important things that happened to you involve your work	<u>.521</u>
% variance explained	57.7

7.5.8 Constructs of locus of control

Initially, the items that were used to measure this variable were 12 in number. Cases-per-variables ratios for this test was 297/12= 24.75-per-1, fulfilling the two minimum requirements of at least ten-to-one ratio, and not fewer than 50 observations in any event (Hair *et al.*, 1998). The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was computed at .761, which is considered as ‘middling’ (Kaiser, 1974, p.35). The Bartlett’s test of sphericity was computed at $\chi^2= 997.499$ and *df*= 66, at *p*= .000, indicating the appropriateness to use Factor Analysis.

As a result of principal component analysis, the first three factors had Eigenvalues greater than 1 (3.519, 1.804 and 1.466) and their cumulative explained variances were 29.324%, 44.360 and 56.574% of the whole variance. Similarly, the scree plot shows a clear cutoff point at component number 3 (see Figure 7.3). Thereby, the retained factors are 3 in number.

After factor rotation, all items loaded significantly on at least one factor (see Table 7.5). As item ‘to a great extent your life is controlled by accidental happenings’ loaded significantly on more than one factor, it is deleted. Although Levenson (1974) reported that this deleted item loaded significantly on one factor (chance locus of control), she also reported such incidence of an item loading on two factors (specifically chance locus of control and power locus of control), which was the case elsewhere (Walkey, 1979). Hence this result is not totally unexpected, and it may imply an overlap to a certain limit

between the two factors. However, as the overlap appeared in one item out of eight, this result still can be considered as a support for Levenson's (1974) claim (discussed in Section 3.5.4) that locus of control has three different aspects, i.e. departing from combining powerful others and chance/fate into external locus of control as proposed by Rotter (1966). The remaining 11 items constitute three factors representing constructs of locus of control.

Figure 7.3 Scree plot for the construct of locus of control

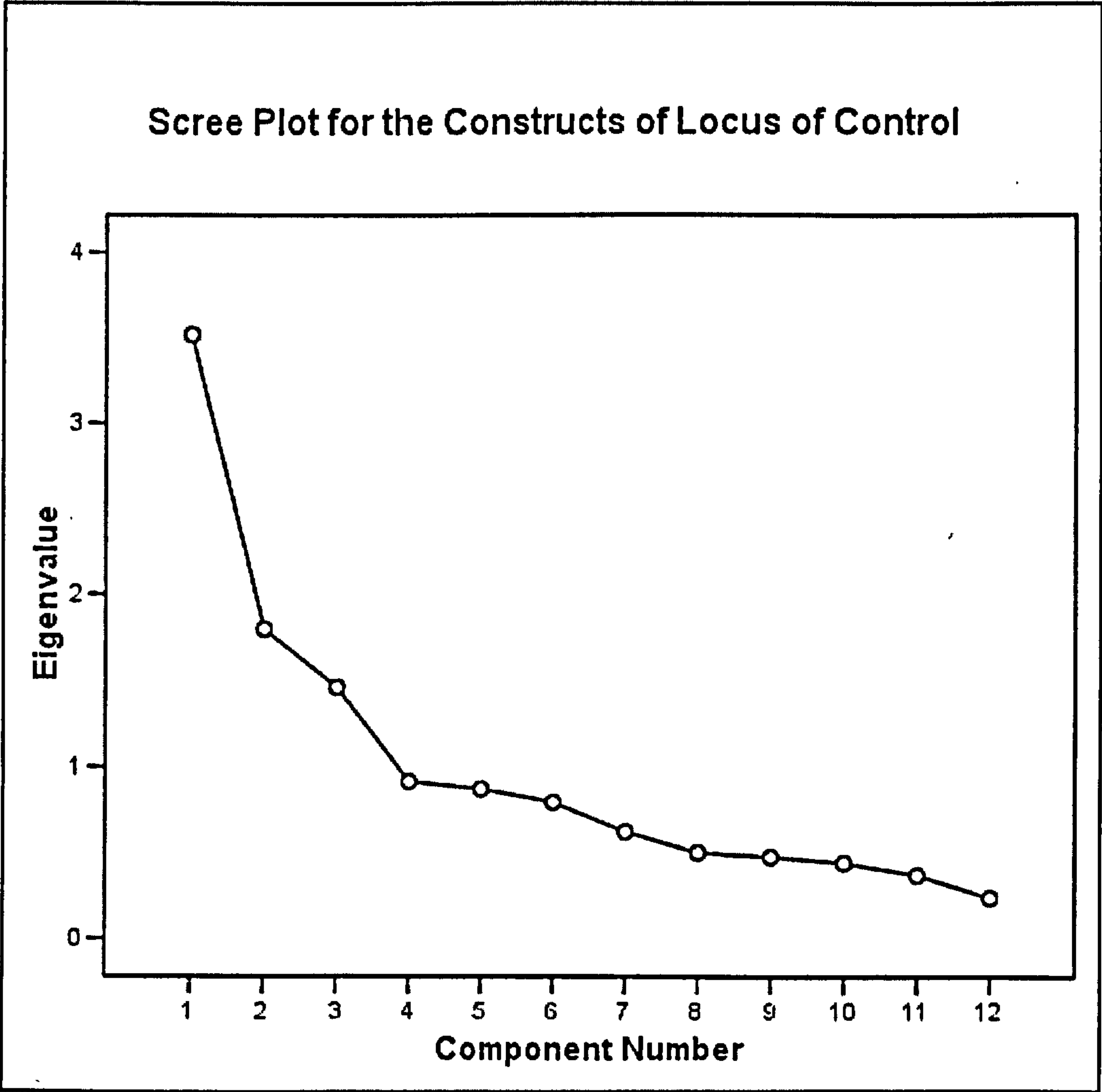


Table 7.5 Locus of control factor loading

Items	Factors		
	Powerful Others	Chance	Internal
Power LOC: You feel that what happens in your life is mostly determined by powerful people.	<u>.852</u>	.084	.011
Power LOC: People like you have little chance of protecting their personal interests when they conflict with those of strong pressure groups.	<u>.784</u>	.107	.019
Power LOC: Your life is controlled chiefly by powerful others.	<u>.859</u>	.083	-.023
Power LOC: Getting what you want requires pleasing those people above you.	<u>.742</u>	.202	-.056
Internal LOC: Your life is determined by your own actions.	.079	.159	<u>.564</u>
Internal LOC: You can pretty much determine what will happen in your life.	-.063	-.039	<u>.603</u>
Internal LOC: When you make plans, you are almost certain to make them work.	-.175	-.097	<u>.728</u>
Internal LOC: When you get what you want, it's usually because you worked hard for it.	.093	-.067	<u>.765</u>
Chance LOC: To a great extent your life is controlled by accidental happenings.	<u>.420</u>	<u>.473</u>	-.063
Chance LOC: Often there is no chance of protecting your personal interest from bad luck happenings.	.358	<u>.603</u>	-.020
Chance LOC: When you get what you want, it's usually because you're lucky.	.130	<u>.785</u>	-.075
Chance LOC: Whether or not you get to be a leader depends on whether you're lucky enough to be in the right place at the right time.	-.050	<u>.811</u>	.090
% cumulated variance explained by rotated factors	25.017	41.414	56.574

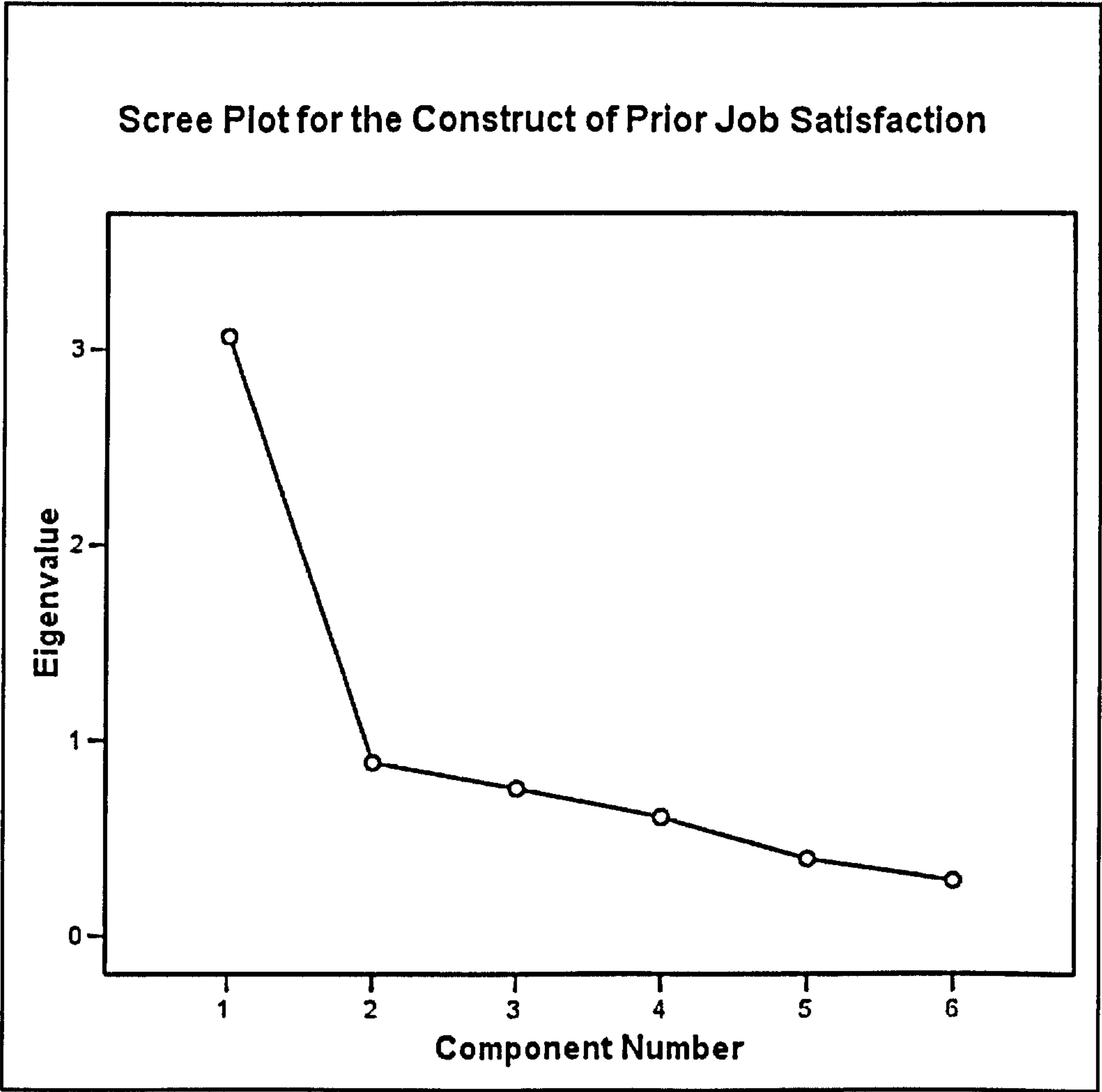
The final stage is labeling these factors and calculating their summated scales. Factor 1 constitutes of 4 items: ‘you feel that what happens in your life is mostly determined by powerful people’, ‘people like you have little chance of protecting their personal interests when they conflict with those of strong pressure groups’, ‘your life is controlled chiefly by powerful others’ and ‘getting what you want requires pleasing those people above you’, thereby it is labeled as power locus of control (PLOC). Factor 2 constitutes of 3 items: ‘often there is no chance of protecting your personal interest from bad luck happenings’, ‘when you get what you want, it’s usually because you’re lucky’ and ‘whether or not you get to be a leader depends on whether you’re lucky enough to be in the right place at the right time’, thereby, it labeled as chance locus of control (CLOC). The third factor constitutes of 4 items: ‘your life is determined by your own actions’, ‘you can pretty much determine what will

happen in your life’, ‘when you make plans, you are almost certain to make them work’ and ‘when you get what you want, it’s usually because you worked hard for it’, thereby it is labeled as internal locus of control (ILOC).

7.5.9 Construct of prior job satisfaction

Initially, the items that were used to measure this variable were 6 in number. Cases-per-variables ratios for this test was $303/6= 50.3\text{-per-}1$, fulfilling the two minimum requirements of at least ten-to-one ratio, and not fewer than 50 observations in any event (Hair *et al.*, 1998). The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was computed at .818, which is considered as ‘meritorious’ (Kaiser, 1974, p.35). The Bartlett’s test of sphericity was computed at $\chi^2= 581.96$ and $df= 15$, at $p= .000$, indicating the appropriateness to use Factor Analysis.

Figure 7.4 Scree plot for the construct of prior job satisfaction



As a result of principal component analysis, only one factor had Eigenvalue greater than one (3.066), and this factor explains 51.1 % of the total variance. On the other hand, the scree plot shows a clear cutoff point at component number 1 (see Figure 7.4). Hence, there is no need for rotation as only one factor was extracted. Thereby, these items constitute a summated scale for prior job satisfaction construct.

Table 7.6 Prior job satisfaction factor loading

The Items	Prior Job Satisfaction
You found real enjoyment in your job.	<u>.835</u>
Most days, you were enthusiastic about your job.	<u>.825</u>
You felt fairly well satisfied with your job.	<u>.795</u>
You would not consider taking another kind of job.	<u>.457</u>
You were seldom bored with your job in the civil service.	<u>.701</u>
You liked your job better than the most of your colleagues liked theirs.	<u>.597</u>
% variance explained	51.1

7.5.10 Construct of prior organisational commitment

Initially, the items that were used to measure this variable were 3 in number. Cases-per-variables ratios for this test was 304/3= 101.3-per-1, fulfilling the two minimum requirements of at least ten-to-one ratio, and not fewer than 50 observations in any event (Hair *et al.*, 1998). The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was computed at .619, which is considered as ‘mediocre’ (Kaiser, 1974, p.35). The Bartlett’s test of sphericity was computed at χ^2 = 108.305 and *df*= 3, at *p*= .000, indicating the appropriateness to use Factor Analysis.

As a result of principal component analysis, there was only one factor that has Eigenvalue greater than one (1.707), and this factor explains 56.891 % of the total variance. On the other hand, the scree plot shows a clear cutoff point at component number 1 (see Figure 7.5). As only one factor was extracted, there is no need for rotation. Thereby, the items constitute a summated scale for organisational commitment construct.

Figure 7.5 Scree plot for the construct of prior organisational commitment

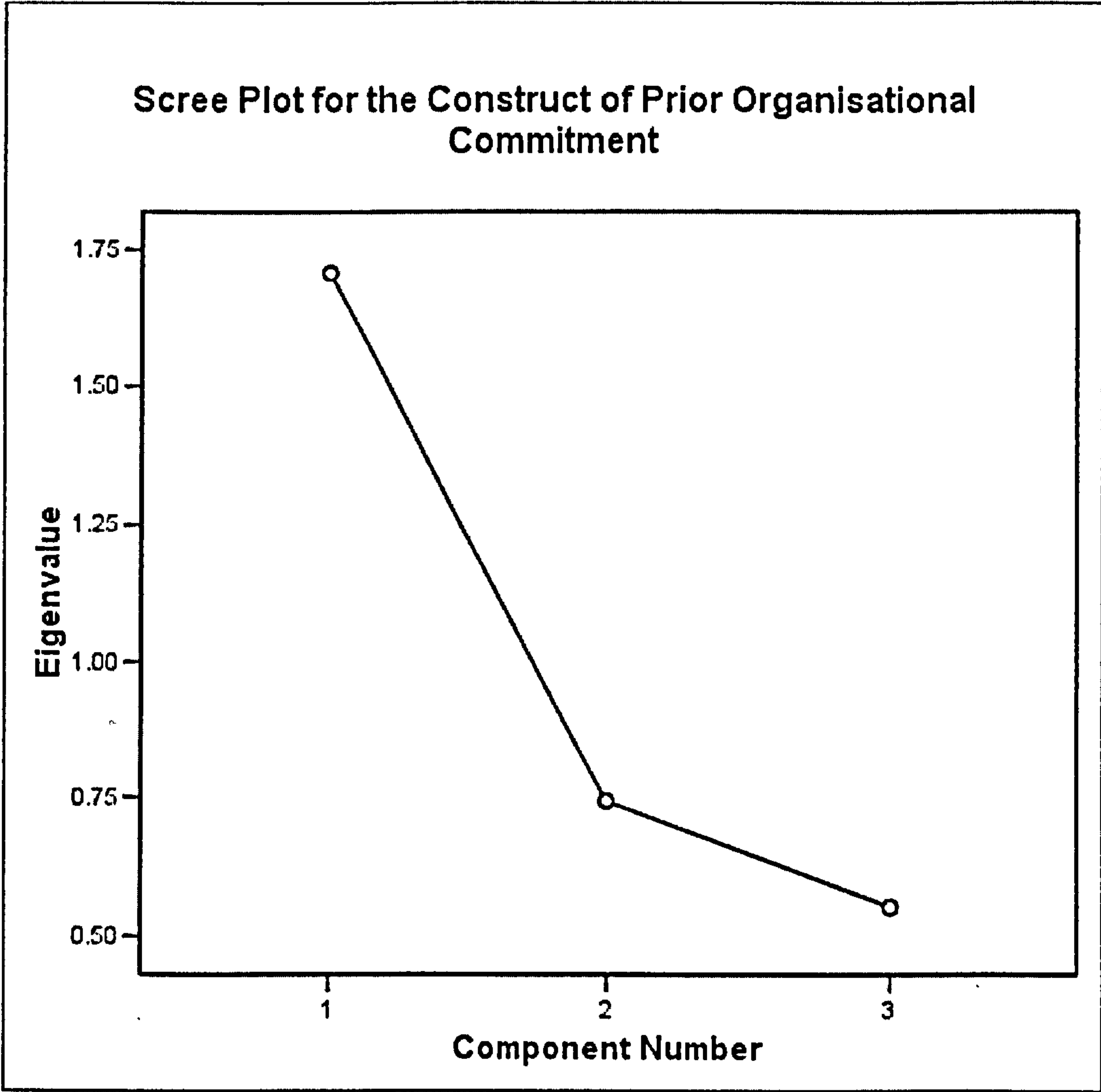


Table 7.7 Prior organisational commitment factor loading

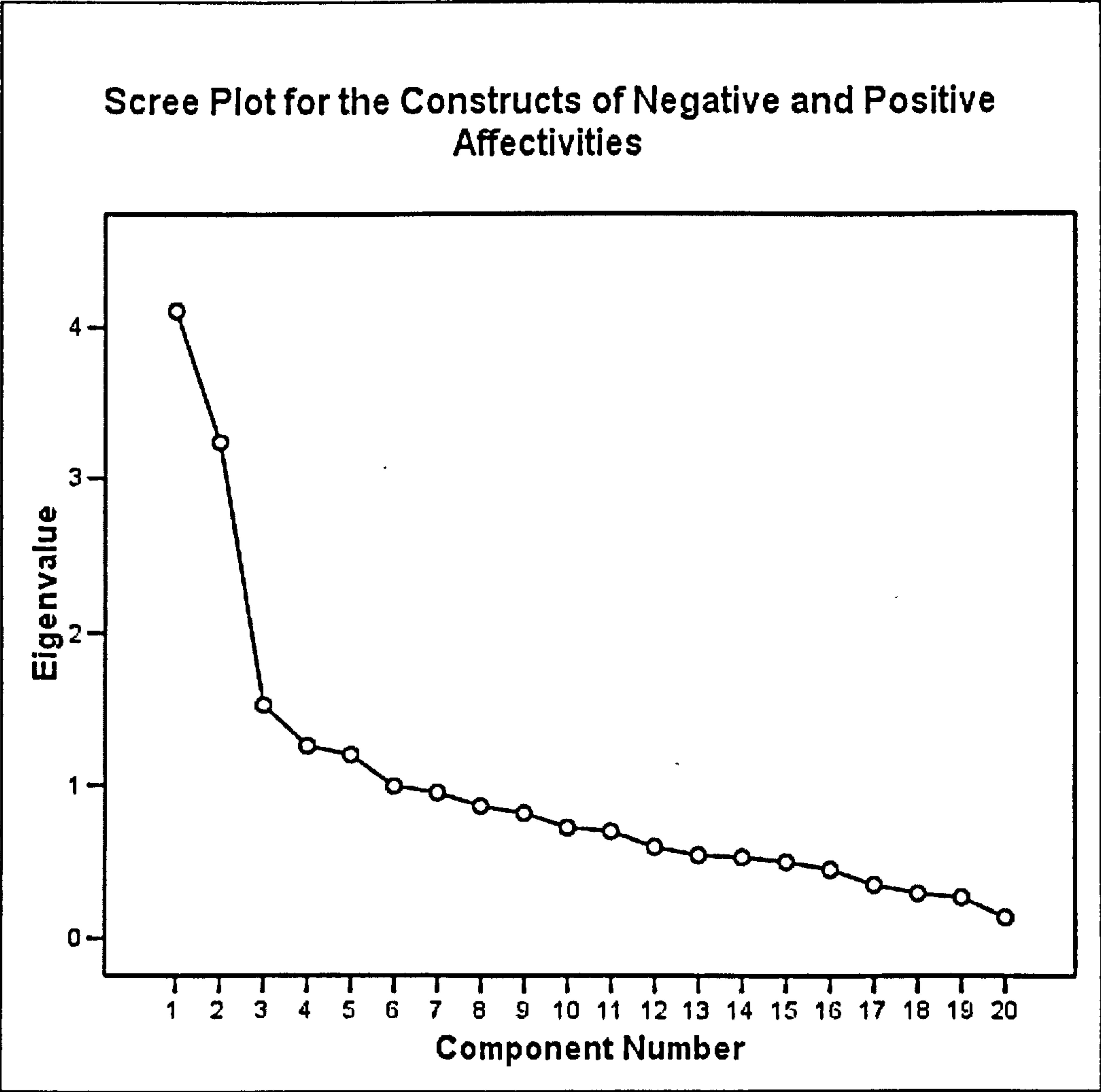
The Items	Prior Organisational Commitment
You felt loyal to the civil service.	<u>.814</u>
You sacrificed personal time to get work done.	<u>.732</u>
You expected to work for the civil service for a long time.	<u>.713</u>
% variance explained	56.891

7.5.11 Constructs of negative and positive affectivities

Initially, the items that were used to measure this variable were 20 in number. Cases-per-variables ratios for this test was 267/20= 13.35-per-1, fulfilling the

two minimum requirements of at least ten-to-one ratio, and not fewer than 50 observations in any event (Hair *et al.*, 1998). The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was computed at .777, which is considered as 'middling' (Kaiser, 1974, p.35). The Bartlett's test of sphericity was computed at $\chi^2= 1710.199$ and $df= 190$, at $p= .000$, indicating the appropriateness to use Factor Analysis.

Figure 7.6 Scree plot for the construct of negative and positive affectivities



As a result of principal component analysis, the first 5 factors had Eigenvalues greater than 1 (4.108, 3.242, 1.530, 1.258 and 1.198), and their cumulative explained variances were 20.539%, 36.748%, 44.396%, 50.685% and 56.675% of the whole variance. On the other hand, the scree plot shows a reasonably clear cutoff point at component number 2 (see Figure 7.6). As the focus here is on the global measures of these affectivities, thereby, based on a priori criterion, these items were re-rotated on 2 factors, which is the same

number of factors adopted by the developers of the measure (Watson *et al.*, 1988, p. 1067).

Table 7.8 Negative and positive affectivities factor loading

The Items	Component	
	Negative Affectivity	Positive Affectivity
Interested	-.027	<u>.432</u>
Determined	.060	<u>.642</u>
Alert	.012	<u>.639</u>
Attentive	-.088	<u>.708</u>
Excited	-.081	<u>.616</u>
Enthusiastic	.395	.319
Inspired	.153	<u>.530</u>
Active	-.019	<u>.569</u>
Strong	-.128	<u>.574</u>
Proud	-.088	<u>.571</u>
Guilty	.215	-.022
Irritable	<u>.767</u>	-.069
Distressed	<u>.646</u>	.014
Scared	<u>.595</u>	-.016
Hostile	<u>.407</u>	-.011
Ashamed	<u>.475</u>	-.039
Jittery	<u>.775</u>	-.045
Upset	<u>.648</u>	-.078
Nervous	<u>.778</u>	-.111
Afraid	<u>.646</u>	.098
% cumulated variance explained by rotated factors	20.309	36.748

After factor rotation, as shown in Table 7.8, item ‘enthusiastic’ and item ‘guilty’, did not load significantly on any factor, therefore, they were deleted. These two words may imply different meanings when translated to another language for use in another cultural context, which may explain such result. Specifically, the word ‘enthusiastic’, when translated to Arabic and used in an Arabic-Islamic context, may imply being ill-advised, whereas the word ‘guilty’ may imply being convicted with a crime or a sin.

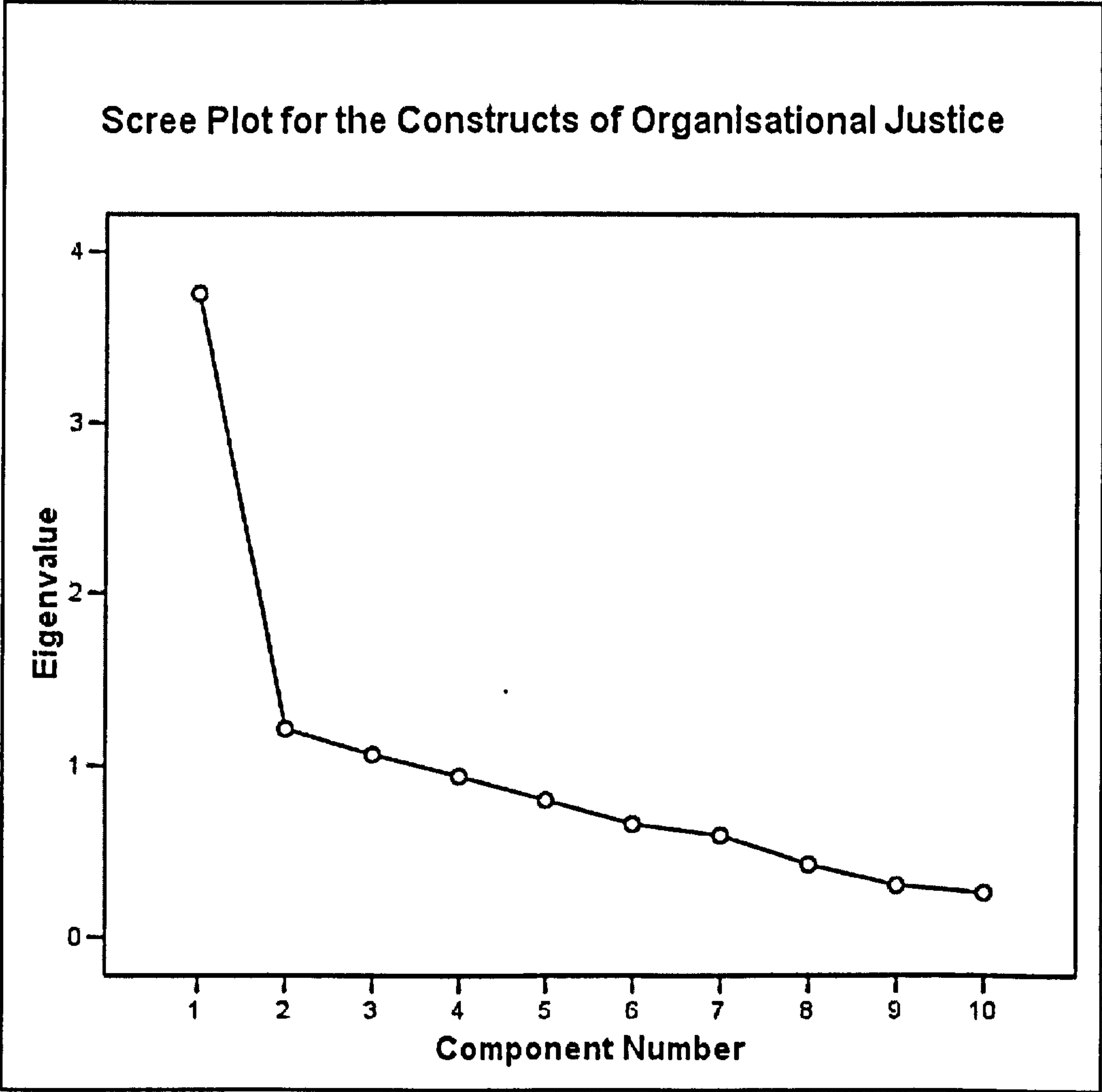
All items pertaining to negative affectivity loaded significantly on factor 1, whereas items pertaining to positive affectivity loaded significantly on factor2. Consequently, factor 1 constitutes: ‘irritable’, ‘distressed’, ‘scared’, ‘hostile’, ‘ashamed’, ‘jittery’, ‘upset’, ‘nervous’, and ‘afraid’, and hence it is labeled as negative affectivity (NA). On the other hand, factor 2 constitutes: ‘interested’,

‘determined’, ‘alert’, ‘attentive’, ‘excited’, ‘inspired’, ‘active’, ‘strong’ and ‘proud’, and hence it is labeled positive affectivity (PA). This result support that negative afectivity and positive afectivity are two separate constructs (discussed in Section 3.5.4).

7.5.12 Constructs of organisational justice

Initially, the items that were used to measure this variable were 10 in number. Cases-per-variables ratios for this test was 270/10= 27-per-1, fulfilling the two minimum requirements of at least ten-to-one ratio, and not fewer than 50 observations in any event (Hair *et al.*, 1998). The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was computed at .799, which is considered as ‘middling’ (Kaiser, 1974, p.35). The Bartlett’s test of sphericity was computed at $\chi^2= 814.99$ and $df= 45$, at $p= .000$, indicating the appropriateness to use Factor Analysis.

Figure 7.7 Scree plot for the constructs of organisational justice



As a result of principal component analysis, the first three factors had Eigenvalues greater than 1 (3.755, 1.217 and 1.065) and their cumulative explained variances were 37.546%, 49.712% and 60.362% of the whole variance. Similarly, the scree plot shows a cutoff point at factor 2 (see Figure 7.7). However, referring to the debate about the dimensionality of organisational justice (discussed in Section 3.4), there are possibilities to have one, two, three, or four dimensions of organisational justice.

Table 7.9 Organisational justice factor loading

The Items	Factors		
	Procedural justice	Distributive justice	Unknown
The period of time between knowing formally about being awarded ESTEDA'A and when you had to leave your job was fair.	<u>.724</u>	.145	.284
The criteria that were used to decide which employees would be awarded ESTEDA'A were fair.	<u>.771</u>	.347	-.034
The criteria that were used to decide which employees would not be awarded ESTEDA'A were fair.	<u>.787</u>	.215	.058
The way the management treated you after the decision was made to award you ESTEDA'A became worse than before.	<u>.573</u>	.001	.024
The management did their best to explain to you the reasons behind their decision to award you ESTEDA'A.	<u>.600</u>	.052	.151
All the employees had the opportunity to challenge or appeal against the decision of awarding ESTEDA'A.	.104	.097	<u>.872</u>
ESTEDA'A decisions were implemented consistently across all affected employees.	<u>.504</u>	.239	-.168
The method that was used to calculate your pension's contributions during the period of ESTEDA'A was fair.	.131	<u>.821</u>	.306
The length of the period of ESTEDA'A was fair.	.365	<u>.722</u>	.259
You think that the sum of payments paid to you (not having any salary or remuneration) during your period of ESTEDA'A was fair.	.092	<u>.750</u>	-.338
% cumulated variance explained by rotated factors	28.493	48.636	60.362

After factor rotation, as shown in Table 7.9, each item loaded significantly on not more than one factor. Apparently factor 1 represents procedural justice, whereas factor 2 represents distributive justice. Nonetheless, albeit item 'all the employees had the opportunity to challenge or appeal against the decision of awarding ESTEDA'A' is regarded as an attribute of the structural part of procedural justice (see Section 6.8.3), it loaded on factor 3. As the other items of the structural part of procedural justice, as well as the items of the interpersonal part, loaded on factor 1, therefore factor 3 does not represent a

separate dimension of organisational justice. A possible explanation is that the Jordanian civil servants have the right to appeal, regarding any administrative decision including ESTEDA'A, to the Jordanian Supreme Court of Justice (represents the administrative court), 'which has the exclusive power to determine the case and take a final decision' (Aeberhard, 2001, p. 41). The results of factor rotation support combining the two aspects (structural and informal) of procedural justice in one construct, which is similar to some reported results (e.g., Mansour-Cole and Scott, 1998).

Further, it worth noting that factor 4 has Eigenvalue of .937, which is close to one. Thereby, to have a more robust interpretation, these items were re-rotated twice using a priori criterion, once with 4 factors and the other time with 2 factors. Such re-rotating enables a more robust judgement regarding the dimensionality of organisational justice.

After comparing the results of the two re-rotations (see Appendix D), it appears that a three-factor rotation presents a clearer factorial structure that enables a more robust interpretation. Nevertheless, although in two-factor re-rotating item 'all the employees had the opportunity to challenge or appeal against the decision of awarding ESTEDA'A' loaded on factor 1 (procedural justice), it was insignificant. Consequently, this result is similar to the one obtained from the initial rotation.

Thereby, factor 1 constitutes 6 items: 'the period of time between knowing formally about being awarded ESTEDA'A and when you had to leave your job was fair', the criteria that were used to decide which employees would be awarded ESTEDA'A were fair', 'the criteria that were used to decide which employees would not be awarded ESTEDA'A were fair', 'the way the management treated you after the decision was made to award you ESTEDA'A became worse than before' and 'the management did their best to explain to you the reasons behind their decision to award you ESTEDA'A', which is labeled as procedural justice. On the other hand, factor 2 constitutes 3 items: 'the method that was used to calculate your pension's contributions during the period of ESTEDA'A was fair', the length of the period of ESTEDA'A was fair', and 'you think that the sum of payments paid to you (not

having any salary or remuneration) during your period of ESTEDA'A was fair', which is labeled as distributive justice. It is noteworthy that item 8 in Table 7.9 addresses the fairness of the method that was used to calculate pension's contributions can imply a procedural aspect. Nonetheless, the method itself is an outcome of the decision to award ESTEDA'A. This outcome determines the amount of money (pension contributions) that an ESTEDA'A leaver should pay during the ESTEDA'A period, which also represents an actual outcome.

7.6 Goodness of measures

The two main technical criteria that are used to assess the goodness of measures are 'validity' and 'reliability' (Sekaran, 2000), which occasionally are called 'psychometric characteristics of an instrument' (Punch, 2005, p. 95). The reliability and validity of the constructs that were measured by summated scales (i.e., those that resulted from the Factor Analysis) are discussed in the following two sections.

7.6.1 Reliability

In Section 6.8.3, the reliabilities of the adapted scales were presented. In this section, the reliabilities of the used scales are computed and compared to those of the originals. Reliability, which is a central concern in measurement, basically means consistency, which has two main aspects: consistency over time and internal consistency (Punch, 2005). As the time horizon of this study is cross-sectional (see Section 6.4.2), therefore, the possible reliability test is internal reliability.

Although reliability concern pertains to all type of questions, the internal consistency reliability is appropriate to only the multi-items scales (Hair *et al.*, 2003). Therefore, reliability analyses are applied to all multi-item scales resulting from Factor Analysis. For this purpose, Cronbach's Alpha is used to assess the strength of association between the different items that measure different aspects of a construct, i.e. that constitute a summated scale of a construct. To judge the value of Cronbach's alpha, it is suggested (Hair *et al.*, 2003) that any value that is

- Less than 0.6 is regarded as poor

- Equal to or more than 0.6 and less than 0.7 is regarded as moderate
- Equal to or more than 0.7 and less than 0.8 is regarded as good
- Equal to or more than 0.8 and less than 0.9 is regarded as very good
- Equal to or more than 0.9 is regarded as excellent.

However, if the value of Cronbach's Alpha exceeds 0.95, it is recommended to reconsider the different items to make sure that they measure different aspects of the concept (Hair *et al.*, 2003). The resultant constructs and their corresponding reliabilities are presented in Table 7.10.

Table 7.10 Reliabilities of the multi item variables

Variable/ Construct	Number of Items	Alpha	Strength of association	Decision	Referent alpha
New Job Circumstances	4	0.797	Good	Used	N/A
New Job Rewards	4	0.672	Moderate	Used	N/A
New Job Other Attributes	3	0.417	Poor	Excluded	N/A
Employment Commitment	5	0.792	Good	Used	0.64 – 0.71
Positive Affectivity	9	0.757	Good	Used	0.82 – 0.88
Negative Affectivity	9	0.828	Very Good	Used	0.83 – 0.87
Power Locus of Control	4	0.853	Very Good	Used	0.77
Chance Locus of Control	3	0.643	Moderate	Used	0.78
Internal Locus of Control	2	0.623	Moderate	Used	0.64
Procedural Justice	6	0.778	Good	Used	0.93-0.95
Distributive Justice	3	0.718	Good	Used	N/A
Prior Job Satisfaction	6	0.789	Good	Used	0.85-0.90
Prior Organisational Commitment	3	0.597	Poor	Excluded	0.71-0.85

N/A= not available

As shown in the Table 7.10, two variables are excluded due to poor alpha: new job other attributes and prior organisational commitment. The alphas of the excluded variables were non-amendable by item deletion. Although the items of new job other attributes loaded on the same factor, they pertain to unrelated attribute of the new job (which was reflected in the labeling the factor). Therefore, it may not be surprising that they do not have high internal consistency. Probably assessing the consistency over time (the other way of assessing reliability) is more appropriate for such variable, which is not achievable due to time horizon of this study. Regarding prior organisational

commitment, its reliability score was close to the moderate level (0.60), however, to maintain robustness of the results, its deletion was deemed more appropriate.

Further, the initial reliability test for internal locus of control resulted in $\alpha = .568$, therefore, the test was repeated twice after deleting one item each time and the resulting two alphas were .582 and .623 respectively. The two deleted items were 'your life is determined by your own actions' and 'you can pretty much determine what will happen in your life', respectively. Probably the notes that some respondents printed next to these items suggesting that 'it is the will of Allah' would explain this result.

7.6.2 Validity

Measurement validity 'is the extent to which an instrument measures what it is claimed to measure' (Punch, 2005, p. 97). Validity tests are classified into three groups: content validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity (Hair *et al.*, 2003; Punch, 2005; Sekaran, 2000).

First, regarding content (face) validity, this type of validity tests focuses on whether a measure of a concept includes the full content of that concept (Punch, 2005). The face validity of each measure included in the questionnaire was discussed in Section 6.8.3.

Second, regarding criterion-related validity, this type of validity tests focuses on whether a measured construct acts as expected (based on theory) relative to other measured construct (Hair *et al.*, 2003), which can take to forms: concurrent validity and predictive validity (Punch, 2005). Concurrent validity is used when the scores of the constructs to be compared were obtained at the same time, whereas the predictive validity is used when the constructs to be compared were obtained in two different points of time (Hair *et al.*, 2003). As the time horizon of this study is cross-sectional (see Section 6.4.2), therefore, the possible validity test is concurrent validity. Through the literature review, several expected correlation were identified. These expected correlations are used in considering the criterion related validity. As shown in Table 7.11, there are positive correlations (for the whole sample, compulsory cases, and

voluntary cases respectively) between distributive justice and procedural justice (.475, .653, .346), positive affectivity and prior job satisfaction (.303, .382, .267), new job rewards and new job circumstances (.246, .230, .338), employment commitment and participation in family income (.340, .184, .392), powerful-others locus of control and chance locus of control (.323, .264, .375), and internal locus of control and positive affectivity (.200, .205, .196). Further, there are negative correlations between negative affectivity and prior job satisfaction (-.139, -.227, -.090), internal locus of control and chance locus of control (-.082, -.084, -.083), and internal locus of control and powerful-others locus of control (-.098, -.032, -.115). Although the correlation between internal locus of control and powerful-others locus of control was very weak (-.032), it was negative correlation as expected. Further explanation will be presented when considering the moderating role of ESTEDA'A type. Therefore, it can be concluded that these correlations demonstrate the criterion-related validity of these constructs.

Third, regarding construct validity, this type of validity tests assesses what the construct is actually measuring, which can take two forms: convergent validity and discriminant validity (Hair *et al.*, 2003). Convergent validity refers to 'the extent to which the construct is positively correlated with other measures of the same construct', whereas the discriminant validity refers to the 'extent to which the construct does not correlate with other construct (measures) that are different from it' (Hair *et al.*, 2003, p. 174). Since none of the constructs was measured via different scales (a condition to use convergent validity test), therefore, the discriminant validity test is the appropriate test. As shown in Tables 7.11 and 7.12, for the whole sample and across ESTEDA'A type, the highest correlation was between procedural justice and distributive justice (.475 and .653 for the whole sample and compulsory cases, respectively), which indicates that there is no high correlation that may imply a threat to the discriminant validity. In addition, these two constructs (procedural justice and distributive justice) were found to be distinct according to the results of Factor Analysis (presented earlier). It is noteworthy that the contents of Tables 7.11 and 7.12 will be further referred to when addressing the second and the third research aims.

Table 7.11 Correlations matrix

	PJ	DJ	PA	NA	NJC	NJR	EC	PLOC	CLOC	ILOC	PJS	NOD	PIFI
Procedural Justice (PJ)		0.001	0.695	0.191	0.850	0.078	0.974	0.613	0.923	0.017	0.024	0.137	0.354
Distributive Justice (DJ)	0.475		0.146	0.993	0.162	0.417	0.167	0.319	0.634	0.408	0.687	0.667	0.881
Positive Affectivity (PA)	-0.009	-0.080		0.071	0.602	0.940	0.026	0.404	0.238	0.942	0.307	0.960	0.730
Negative Affectivity (NA)	-0.132	-0.079	-0.073		0.003	0.142	0.394	0.625	0.926	0.472	0.265	0.622	0.953
New Job Circumstances (NJC)	-0.069	-0.073	0.090	-0.097		0.371	0.176	0.351	0.591	0.037	0.008	0.699	0.591
New Job Rewards (NJR)	0.162	0.138	0.018	-0.025	0.246		0.237	0.921	0.033	0.566	0.981	0.261	0.244
Employment commitment (EC)	-0.065	-0.133	0.106	0.054	0.179	0.099		0.086	0.616	0.684	0.400	0.060	0.060
Powerful-others Locus of Control (PLOC)	-0.127	-0.183	0.028	0.249	-0.207	0.005	0.149		0.292	0.477	0.553	0.341	0.440
Chance Locus of Control (CLOC)	0.025	-0.003	-0.087	0.225	-0.078	0.001	0.007	0.323		0.991	0.043	0.209	0.702
Internal Locus of Control (ILOC)	0.116	-0.032	0.200	-0.084	0.111	0.061	0.097	-0.098	-0.082		0.903	0.476	0.265
Prior Job Satisfaction (PJS)	0.012	-0.025	0.303	-0.139	-0.259	-0.058	0.095	0.109	0.022	0.101		0.558	0.422
Number of Dependents (NOD)	-0.041	-0.071	-0.060	0.029	0.003	0.008	0.065	0.064	0.034	0.041	0.027		0.063
Participation in Family Income (PIFI)	-0.106	-0.022	0.029	-0.074	-0.050	0.048	0.340	0.055	-0.028	0.007	0.073	0.281	
The upper diagonal part presents the significance of Fisher's z' for comparisons between Pearson's rs of both ESTEDA'A types.													
The lower diagonal part presents Pearson's rs for the whole sample.													
In the lower part, all bolded Pearson's rs have $p \leq .05$, all italicized Pearson's rs have $p \leq .01$, and all underlined Pearson's rs have $p \leq .001$.													

Table 7.12 Correlations matrix for each of ESTEDA’A types

	PJ	DJ	PA	NA	NJC	NJR	EC	PLOC	CLOC	ILOC	PJS	NOD	PIFI
Procedural Justice (PJ)		<u>0.653</u>	-0.041	-0.045	-0.063	0.283	-0.062	-0.134	0.020	-0.028	-0.105	-0.118	-0.155
Distributive Justice (DJ)	<u>0.346</u>		0.026	-0.076	-0.132	0.060	-0.243	-0.273	-0.035	-0.076	-0.079	-0.054	-0.054
Positive Affectivity (PA)	0.009	-0.163		-0.203	0.123	0.028	-0.075	-0.025	-0.178	0.205	<u>0.382</u>	-0.055	0.005
Negative Affectivity (NA)	-0.210	-0.077	0.021		-0.317	-0.147	0.122	0.284	0.219	-0.132	-0.227	-0.008	-0.070
New Job Circumstances (NJC)	-0.089	0.061	0.050	0.088		0.230	0.066	-0.101	-0.124	0.251	-0.030	0.042	-0.080
New Job Rewards (NJR)	0.054	0.171	0.018	0.061	0.338		0.021	-0.024	-0.166	0.112	-0.080	0.092	0.131
Employment commitment (EC)	-0.058	-0.075	0.206	0.014	0.244	0.179		0.264	0.046	0.079	0.149	-0.086	0.184
Powerful-others Locus of Control (PLOC)	-0.073	-0.156	0.080	0.227	-0.220	-0.011	0.064		0.264	-0.032	0.042	-0.019	-0.038
Chance Locus of Control (CLOC)	0.031	0.023	-0.032	0.230	-0.054	0.114	-0.014	<u>0.375</u>		-0.084	-0.124	-0.054	-0.058
Internal Locus of Control (ILOC)	0.255	0.025	0.196	-0.042	-0.021	0.037	0.127	-0.115	-0.083		0.130	0.001	0.109
Prior Job Satisfaction (PJS)	0.165	-0.029	<u>0.267</u>	-0.090	<u>-0.362</u>	-0.077	0.049	0.112	0.112	0.116		-0.034	0.110
Number of Dependents (NOD)	0.064	-0.108	-0.061	0.056	-0.010	-0.058	0.145	0.095	0.097	0.087	0.037		0.136
Participation in Family Income (PIFI)	-0.044	-0.036	0.049	-0.078	-0.008	-0.024	<u>0.392</u>	0.054	-0.013	-0.022	0.016	<u>0.346</u>	
The upper diagonal part presents compulsory cases' Pearson's rs, whereas the lower part presents voluntary cases' Pearson's rs. In both parts, all bolded Pearson's rs have $p \leq .05$, all italicized Pearson's rs have $p \leq .01$, and all underlined Pearson's rs have $p \leq .001$.													

7.7 Explore the employee attitudes to, and perceptions of, ESTEDA'A

After delineating the measured constructs, through applying Factor Analysis on, and considering reliability and validity of, these measures, it is possible to address the first research aim. All variables are calculated in a way that high scores of a variable reflect being high on that variable. This necessitated item q74 being reverse recoded, as it was a reversed question (see Section 6.8). To make identifying mid point of each summated scale easier, the means were calculated for the resultant scores of the summated scales for each variable.

As shown in Table 7.13, the voluntary cases perceived procedures to be significantly fairer than the compulsory cases did. This significant difference was also present within cases that had their ESTEDA'A after 1998 but not within those who had their ESTEDA'A in 1998 or before (see columns 'B and E' and 'C and F' in Table 7.13).

As Table 7.13 shows, there is no significant difference in the perceived fairness of outcome between compulsory cases and voluntary cases. The absence of a significant difference was also within cases who had their ESTEDA'A after 1998 and within those who had their ESTEDA'A in 1998 or before (see columns 'B and E' and 'C and F' in Table 7.13).

One-fifth (27) of the compulsory cases and quarter (43) of voluntary cases disagreed or strongly disagreed that there were fairer alternative to awarding ESTEDA'A. On the other hand, 53.3% (72) of the compulsory cases and quarter 36.8% (63) of voluntary cases agreed or strongly agreed that there were fairer alternative to awarding ESTEDA'A. As Table 7.13 shows, on average, both ESTEDA'A types agreed that there were fairer alternative to awarding ESTEDA'A, but voluntary were significantly more likely to agree. This significant difference was also present within those who had their ESTEDA'A after 1998 but not within those who had their ESTEDA'A in 1998 or before (see columns 'B and E' and 'C and F' in Table 7.13).

As Table 7.13 shows, on average, both ESTEDA'A type disagreed that, by summing up all that resulted from being awarded ESTEDA'A, they considered themselves over-rewarded, with no significant difference across ESTEDA'A types. The absence of a significant difference across ESTEDA'A type was also within cases who had their ESTEDA'A after 1998 and within those who had their ESTEDA'A in 1998 or before (see columns 'B and E' and 'C and F' in Table 7.13). Specifically, 17.8% (24) of the compulsory cases and 11.7% (20) of voluntary cases agreed or strongly agreed, whereas 47.4% (64) of the compulsory cases and 49.7 % (85) of voluntary cases disagreed or strongly disagreed.

When thinking about ESTEDA'A, 23.7% (32) of compulsory cases and 31% (53) of voluntary cases agreed or strongly agreed that they feel that they were rewarded, whereas 52.6% (71) of compulsory cases and 38.6% (66) of voluntary cases disagreed or strongly disagreed. On average, both ESTEDA'A types disagreed that when thinking about ESTEDA'A they feel that they were rewarded, but compulsory cases were significantly more likely to disagree (see Table 7.13). This significant difference was also present within cases that had their ESTEDA'A after 1998 but not within those who had their ESTEDA'A in 1998 or before (see columns 'B and E' and 'C and F' in Table 7.13).

On average, when thinking about ESTEDA'A, voluntary cases were more likely to disagree that they feel being wronged, whereas compulsory cases were more likely to agree (see Table 7.13). This significant difference was also present within cases that had their ESTEDA'A after 1998 but not within those who had their ESTEDA'A in 1998 or before (see columns 'B and E' and 'C and F' in Table 7.13). Specifically, 49.6% (67) of compulsory cases and 29.8% (51) of voluntary cases agreed or strongly agreed that they feel that they were wronged, whereas 27.4% (37) of compulsory cases and 39.2% (67) of voluntary cases disagreed or strongly disagreed.

Table 7.13 Respondents' attitudes to, and perceptions of, ESTEDA'A

Variables	Mean						Significance of t-test for mean difference between				
	Compulsory cases			Voluntary cases							
	A	B	C	D	E	F	A and D	B and C	E and F	B and E	C and F
	All	In 1998 or before	After 1998	All	In 1998 or before	After 1998					
Procedural Justice*	3.083	3.3064	2.8103	3.311	3.2252	3.3405	0.023	0.002	0.406	0.634	0.000
Distributive Justice*	2.782	2.9462	2.5741	2.572	2.7685	2.4986	0.077	0.057	0.124	0.386	0.567
There were fairer alternatives instead of awarding you ESTEDA'A**	2.451	2.57	2.3	2.727	2.76	2.68	0.045	0.177	0.710	0.429	0.027
By summing up all that resulted from being awarded ESTEDA'A, you would consider yourself to be over-rewarded**	3.425	3.47	3.35	3.586	3.66	3.58	0.203	0.539	0.686	0.390	0.261
When you think about ESTEDA'A:											
You feel that you were rewarded**	3.639	3.39	3.98	3.143	3	3.21	0.002	0.012	0.405	0.164	0.000
You feel that you were wronged**	2.563	2.85	2.13	3.081	3.27	3	0.002	0.002	0.318	0.154	0.000
You feel that you were betrayed**	2.639	2.84	2.31	3.257	3.53	3.17	0.000	0.035	0.160	0.013	0.001
You feel that you were given an opportunity**	3.339	3.13	3.61	2.448	2.17	2.55	0.000	0.059	0.124	0.000	0.000

* High scores indicate more fairness, with mid point at 3= neutral.

** High scores indicate disagreeing, with mid point at 3= neutral.

On average, when thinking about ESTEDA'A, voluntary cases were more likely to disagree that they feel being betrayed, whereas compulsory cases were more likely to agree. This significant difference was also present within cases that had their ESTEDA'A after 1998 and within those who had their ESTEDA'A in 1998 or before (see columns 'B and E' and 'C and F' in Table 7.13). Specifically, 43.7% (59) of compulsory cases and 24% (41) of voluntary cases agreed or strongly agreed that they feel that they were betrayed, whereas 27.4% (37) of compulsory cases and 44.4% (76) of voluntary cases disagreed or strongly disagreed.

On average, voluntary cases were more likely to agree that when thinking about ESTEDA'A they feel that they were given an opportunity, while compulsory cases were more likely to disagree. This significant difference was also present within cases that had their ESTEDA'A after 1998 and within those who had their ESTEDA'A in 1998 or before (see columns 'B and E' and 'C and F' in Table 7.13). Specifically, 31.9% (43) of compulsory cases and 59.6% (102) of voluntary cases agreed or strongly agreed, whereas 44.4% (60) of compulsory cases and 22.2% (38) of voluntary cases disagreed or strongly disagreed. It is noteworthy that across the three comparisons between voluntary cases and compulsory cases reported in Table 7.15, compulsory cases were significantly more likely to agree that they feel being betrayed when thinking about ESTEDA'A than voluntary cases. In contrast, voluntary cases were significantly more likely to agree that they feel being given an opportunity when thinking about ESTEDA'A than voluntary cases.

As Table 7.13 shows, when comparing the reported attitudes of voluntary cases who had their ESTEDA'A in 1998 or before (column E of Table 7.13) with voluntary cases who had their ESTEDA'A after 1998 (column F of Table 7.13) it appears that there is no significant difference between the two groups in any of the reported attitudes. Bearing in mind that the latter received less outcome than the former did (see Section 4.2), this may contradict the logic behind the three-type classification of ESTEDA'A.

On the other hand, within compulsory cases, those who had their ESTEDA'A after 1998 perceived the procedures to fairer than their counter part did.

Further, within compulsory cases, those who had their ESTEDA'A after 1998 were more likely to agree that when thinking about ESTEDA'A they feel wronged and feel betrayed, and they were more likely to disagree that they feel as being rewarded, compared to their counter part (see column 'B and C' in Table 7.13). This result contradicts the logic behind categorizing ESTEDA'A into four types. Specifically, this result contradicts considering compulsory cases who had their ESTEDA'A in 1998 or before as high-referent compulsory cases (see Section 5.4.1). This contradiction is probably because of the positive effect of 'organisational needs' as the perceived reason behind downsizing, especially that 86% (61) of compulsory cases who had their ESTEDA'A in 1998 or before reported 'yes' to 'organisational needs' compared to 60% (36) of those who had their ESTEDA'A after 1998. The positive effect of 'organisational needs' is tested in hypothesis 1(a) and hypothesis 2(b).

To sum up, generally, when compared to compulsory cases, voluntary cases reported more positive attitudes to, and perceptions of, ESTEDA'A. The only exception was the perceived distributive justice. The significance of these differences was clearer within those who had their ESTEDA'A after 1998 than their counterpart. Further, although voluntary cases who had their ESTEDA'A in 1998 or before received more outcomes than voluntary cases who had their ESTEDA'A after 1998, there was no significant difference in any of the reported attitudes between the two groups. On the other hand, compulsory cases who had their ESTEDA'A in 1998 or before reported more positive attitudes to, and perceptions of, ESTEDA'A than compulsory cases who had their ESTEDA'A after 1998. This result contradicts considering compulsory cases who had their ESTEDA'A in 1998 or before as high-referent compulsory cases, and consequently makes the four-type categorizing method invalid (see Section 5.4.1). Apparently this contradiction is attributed to the positive effect of 'organisational needs as a reason for downsizing'.

7.8 Compare and contrast the attitudes and perceptions of employees who have been downsized by the method of ESTEDA'A

The correlations matrix presented in Tables 7.11 shows that procedural justice had significant correlations with negative affectivity (-.132), new job rewards (.162), powerful-others locus of control (-.127), and internal locus of control (.116), whereas distributive justice had significant correlations with new job rewards (.138), employment commitment (-.133), and powerful-others locus of control (-.183). Although these correlations were in the expected directions, they may not maintain their significance when considering control variables and other variables of the same set, which is dealt with via using multiple regressions. Therefore, to achieve the second aim of this study, the hypotheses 1(a) through 1(g) are tested.

When the hypotheses were formed in Chapter 5, some independent variables were combined into groups: personality traits (negative affectivity, positive affectivity, powerful-others locus of control, chance locus of control, and internal locus of control), prior job attitudes (prior job satisfaction and prior organisational commitment), need to work (employment commitment, number of dependent, participation in family income, and being main breadwinner), new job level and type (new job circumstances, new job rewards, new job type fulltime/part-time and new job type permanent/temporary), reason behind requesting ESTEDA (family issues, another job, tiredness, illness, and changing your life), and the reason behind awarding ESTEDA (your performance, organisational need, and your needs). The other independent variables are assessed individually: wanted to work after ESTEDA'A, working after ESTEDA'A, had a job before leaving, change in family income CIFI. On the other hand, as the dependent variable has two fold (distributive justice and procedural justice), each hypothesis was tested twice, once for distributive justice and the other for procedural justice.

To reduce multicollinearity when testing a moderating effect, all moderator variables and corresponding independent variables, except dummy variables, were centred as recommended by Aiken and West (1991). To centre a

variable means recoding it by subtracting its mean from the original score. It is important to emphasize that

Any additive transformation of the original variables has no effect on the overall interaction or on any aspect of the interaction we might choose to examine. (Aiken and West, 1991, p.32)

7.8.1 Testing the hypotheses pertaining to the second research aim

In this section, the results of hypotheses testing are presented, whereas the discussion of these results is presented in Chapter 8.

Hypothesis 1(a)

After controlling for age and gender, the independent variables (personality traits, prior attitudes, need to work, and the reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A) influence the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

As there are four groups of independent variables and two dependent variables, this hypothesis will be tested 8 times (4 x 2). A summary of the results of these tests is presented in Table 7.14, whereas the detailed Tables are presented in Appendix E. The computed values of Durbin-Watson statistic (*D*) showed that none of the multiple regressions models had a positive or negative autocorrelation, which implies that the assumption of independence of errors was not violated (Berenson and Levine, 1999). Further, the computed values of Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) indicated that none of the entered variables had high multicollinearity that may entail redundancy in the entered variables. The values of *D* and VIF are presented in Appendix E.

(I) Testing hypothesis 1(a) regarding distributive justice and personality traits

The group of variables 'personality traits' had a non-significant contribution ($R^2 = .024$, $p = .322$) to the variance of distributive justice. Similarly, none of

the personality traits had a significant effect on distributive justice as individual variables.

(II) Testing hypothesis 1(a) regarding distributive justice and prior job attitudes

The group of variables 'prior job attitudes' had a non-significant contribution ($R^2 = .002$, $p = .589$) to the variance of distributive justice. Likewise, prior job satisfaction had no significant effect on distributive justice, as prior job satisfaction is the only variable in this group.

(III) Testing hypothesis 1(a) regarding distributive justice and need to work

The group of variables 'need to work' had a non-significant contribution ($R^2 = .025$, $p = .191$) to the variance of distributive justice. Nonetheless, employment commitment had a significant negative effect on distributive justice (Beta = $-.146$; $p = .042$) as an individual variable.

(IV) Testing hypothesis 1(a) regarding distributive justice and the reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A

The group of variables 'the reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A' had a significant contribution ($R^2 = .074$, $p = .000$) to the variance of distributive justice. Nonetheless, only 'organisational needs' as a reason behind ESTEDA'A (Beta = $.449$; $p = .000$), and 'your needs' as a reason behind ESTEDA'A (Beta = $.318$; $p = .003$) had significant positive effects on distributive justice as individual variables. As stated in Section 7.2.3, only one compulsory case and one voluntary case reported 'your performance' to be the reason behind ESTEDA'A. Therefore, the significance of the effect of 'your performance' as a reason for awarding ESTEDA'A becomes much less sensitive with such small number of cases, i.e., even considerable¹⁴ differences may not be statistically significant (Berenson and Levine, 1999;

¹⁴ The Distributive Justice mean difference between those who reported 'your performance' and those who did not was computed at $3.5 - 2.6558 = 0.84424$.

Hair *et al.*, 1998). Hence, no significant effect is expected regarding this reason.

The sign of beta as well as *t*-test indicate that those who perceived the reason for awarding ESTEDA'A to be 'organisational needs' reported higher distributive justice (distributive justice= 2.8825, *t*= -2.571; *df*= 244; *p*= .011) than what their counterpart reported (distributive justice= 2.5618). As discussed in Section 4.3.1, 46 of the respondent indicated that privatisation was a reason for ESTEDA'A, of which, 35 were recruited for their previous jobs by the new management. These cases were among the 137 respondents who chose 'organisational needs' as a reason for ESTEDA'A. Out of these 137 respondents, 103 (75.2%) reported that they 'had a job before leaving'. Therefore, to eliminate the possibility that the positive effect of 'organisational needs' on distributive justice was because of 'having a job before leaving', this multiple-regression was re-run after controlling for 'having a job before leaving'. The results show that 'organisational needs' has a significant positive effect on distributive justice (beta=.377, change in R^2 =.042, *p*=.001). This may imply that ESTEDA'A leavers perceived this reason of 'organisational needs', as a good justification. Further, the results of testing hypothesis 2(b) sheds more light on this relationship between 'organisational needs' and distributive justice.

The other possible reason for awarding ESTEDA'A, 'your needs', has a positive effect on distributive justice, which is indicated by the sign of its beta. However, the result of *t*-test shows that there is no significant difference between the two groups (*t*= .448; *df*= 243; *p*= .655).

(V) Testing hypothesis 1(a) regarding procedural justice and personality traits

The group of variables 'personality traits' had a significant contribution (R^2 = .060, *p*= .010) to the variance of procedural justice. Nonetheless, only negative affectivity (Beta= -.134; *p*= .045) and internal locus of control (Beta= .171; *p*= .008) had significant effects on procedural justice as individual variables.

(VI) Testing hypothesis 1(a) regarding procedural justice and prior job attitudes

The group of variables 'prior job attitudes' had a non-significant contribution ($R^2 = .000$, $p = .898$) to the variance of procedural justice. Likewise, prior job satisfaction had no significant effect on procedural justice, as prior job satisfaction is the only variable in this group. The existence of a moderating variable may explain this result, which is considered by testing hypotheses 1(g) and hypothesis 2(a).

(VII) Testing hypothesis 1(a) regarding procedural justice and need to work

The group of variables 'need to work' had a non-significant contribution ($R^2 = .002$, $p = .979$) to the variance of procedural justice. Similarly, none of the variables in this group had a significant effect on procedural justice.

(VIII) Testing hypothesis 1(a) regarding procedural justice and the reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A

The group of variables 'the reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A had significant contribution ($R^2 = .201$, $p = .000$) to the variance of procedural justice. Nonetheless, only 'organisational needs' as a reason behind ESTEDA'A (Beta = .444; $p = .000$) and 'your needs' as a reason behind ESTEDA'A (Beta = .337; $p = .000$) had significant individual positive effects on procedural justice. As stated earlier in this section, the significance of the effect of 'your performance' as a reason for ESTEDA'A becomes much less sensitive with a small number of cases; hence, no significant effect is expected regarding this reason.

The sign of beta as well as t -test indicate that those who perceived the reason for awarding ESTEDA'A to be 'organisational needs' reported higher procedural justice (procedural justice = 3.3797, $t = -3.471$; $df = 256$; $p = .001$) than what their counterpart reported (procedural justice = 3.0293). To eliminate the possibility that the positive effect of 'organisational needs' on procedural justice was because of 'having a job before leaving', this multiple-

regression was re-run after controlling for 'having a job before leaving'. The results show that 'organisational needs' has a significant positive effect on procedural justice (beta=.657, change in R^2 =.135, p =.000). This may imply that ESTEDA'A leavers perceived this reason of 'organisational needs', as a good justification.

Regarding 'your needs' as a reason for awarding ESTEDA'A, the sign of its beta indicates that it has a positive effect on procedural justice. However, the result of t -test shows that there is no significant difference in the perceived procedural justice between those who reported 'your needs' and those who did not (t = -1.280; df = 250.523; p = .179).

To sum up, when this hypothesis was tested regarding distributive justice, only the group of variables 'reasons behind ESTEDA'A' had a significant effect on distributive justice. Nonetheless, as individual variables, each of employment commitment, 'organisational needs' as a reason behind ESTEDA'A, and 'your needs' as a reason behind ESTEDA'A had a significant effect on distributive justice. On the other hand, when this hypothesis was tested regarding procedural justice, the two groups of variable 'personality traits' and 'reasons behind ESTEDA'A' had significant effects on procedural justice. Nonetheless, as individual variables, each of negative affectivity, internal locus of control, 'organisational needs' as a reason behind ESTEDA'A, and 'your needs' as a reason behind ESTEDA'A had a significant effect on procedural justice.

Table 7.14 Summary of the results of testing hypotheses 1(a)

Hypotheses	Variables Set	Independent Variables	Distributive Justice			Procedural Justice				
			Beta	Coefficient Significance	Change in R ²	Change Significance	Beta	Coefficient Significance	Change in R ²	Change Significance
H1(a)	Personality traits	Negative Affectivity	-0.052	0.448	0.024	0.322	-0.134	0.045	0.060	0.010
		Positive Affectivity	-0.063	0.345			-0.046	0.479		
		Powerful-others Locus of control	-0.130	0.066			-0.099	0.148		
		Chance Locus of control	0.038	0.593			0.069	0.309		
		Internal Locus of control	-0.022	0.738			0.171	0.008		
		Prior Job Satisfaction	-0.033	0.589			0.002	0.589		
	Need to work	Number of Dependents	-0.077	0.286	0.025	0.191	0.009	0.900	0.002	0.979
		Participation in Family Income	-0.162	0.234			0.037	0.782		
		Main Breadwinner	0.168	0.212			-0.062	0.636		
		Employment Commitment	-0.146	0.042			0.032	0.650		
	Reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A	Your performance	0.030	0.636	0.074	0.000	0.073	0.198	0.201	0.000
		Organisational needs	0.449	0.000			0.444	0.000		
		Your needs	0.318	0.003			0.337	0.000		

Hypothesis 1(b)

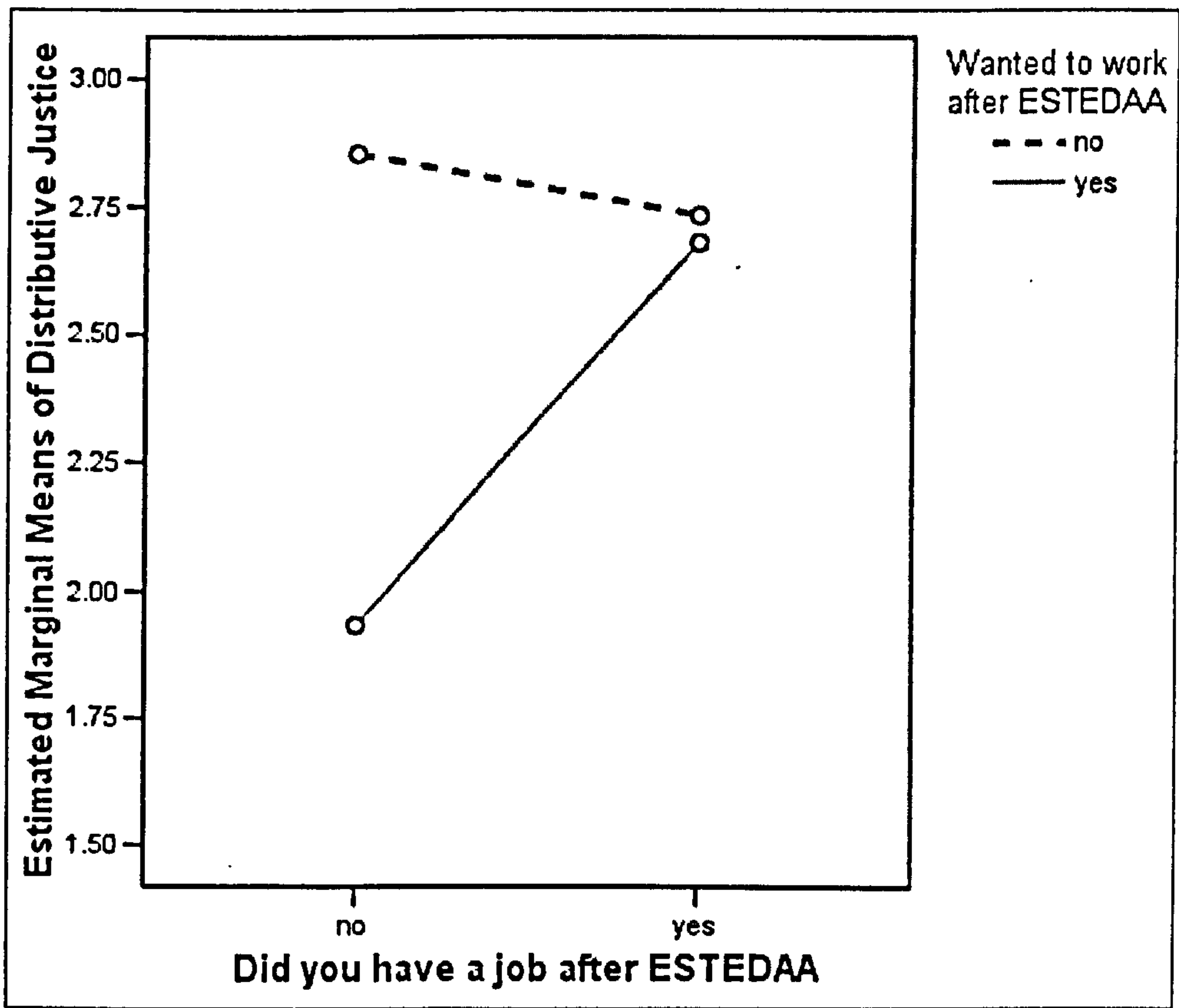
The interaction of wanting to work after ESTEDA'A and working after ESTEDA'A influences the perceived organisational justice (distributive justice and procedural justice).

As this interaction (wanting to work after ESTEDA'A and working after ESTEDA'A) is between two categorical variables, this hypothesis can be tested by two-way ANOVA (Baron and Kenny, 1986; Sá, 2003). Since there are two dependent variables: distributive justice and procedural justice, therefore, this hypothesis should be tested twice.

(I) Testing hypothesis 1(b) regarding distributive justice

The result of Levene's test ($F = .690$; $df = 3, 269$; $p = .559$) indicates the equality of error variances across groups, hence ANOVA test is appropriate to use. As the result of two-way ANOVA test shows that the interaction between wanting to work after ESTEDA'A and working after ESTEDA'A was significant ($F = 4.048$; $df = 1, 269$; $p = .045$), therefore, the hypothesis is accepted regarding distributive justice. This interaction is plotted in Figure 7.8, which shows that the positive affect of 'working after ESTEDA'A' was present within those who wanted to work. The results of t -tests show that within those who wanted to work after ESTEDA'A, who worked after ESTEDA'A reported significantly higher distributive justice (distributive justice = 2.6807; $t = -2.956$; $df = 227$; $p = .003$) than those who did not work after ESTEDA'A (distributive justice = 1.9333). On the other hand, within those who did not want to work, there was no significant difference between who worked after ESTEDA'A and who did not ($t = .320$; $df = 42$; $p = .751$) (see Figure 7.8). Thereby, the effect of working after ESTEDA'A on distributive justice exists within who wanted to work but not within their counterpart. Testing hypothesis 2(b) sheds light on this result.

Figure 7.8 The interaction of wanting to work and working after ESTEDA'A against distributive justice

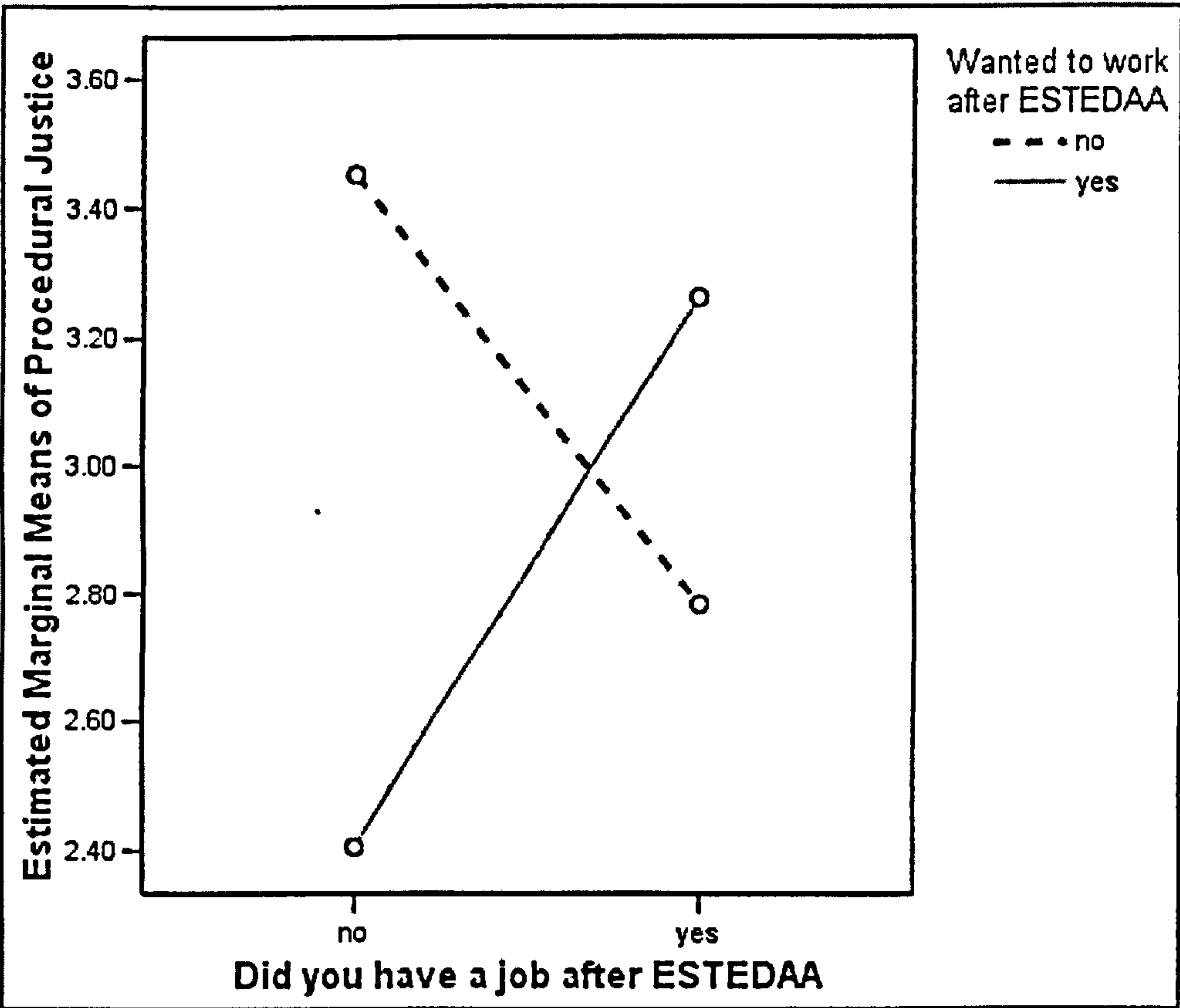


(II) Testing hypothesis 1(b) regarding procedural justice

The result of Levene's test ($F= 1.626$; $df= 3, 279$; $p= .186$) indicates the equality of error variances across groups, hence ANOVA test is appropriate to use. As the result of two-way ANOVA test shows that the interaction between wanting to work after ESTEDA'A and working after ESTEDA'A was significant ($F= 18.748$; $df= 1, 279$; $p= .000$), therefore, the hypothesis is accepted regarding procedural justice. This interaction is plotted in Figure 7.9, which shows that 'working after ESTEDA'A' had a positive effect on procedural justice within those who wanted to work and a negative effect within those who did not want to work after ESTEDA'A. The results of t -tests show that these two effects were significant. Specifically, within those who wanted to work after ESTEDA'A, those who worked after ESTEDA'A reported significantly higher procedural justice (procedural justice= 3.2625; $t= -3.313$; $df= 16.280$; $p= .004$) than those who did not work after ESTEDA'A (procedural justice= 2.4063). On the other hand, within those who did not want to work

after ESTEDA'A, those who worked after ESTEDA'A reported significantly lower procedural justice (procedural justice= 2.7833; $t= 2.458$; $df= 39$; $p= .019$) than those who did not work after ESTEDA'A (procedural justice= 3.4516).

Figure 7.9 The interaction of wanting to work and working after ESTEDA'A against procedural justice



Hypothesis 1(c)

Within those who worked after ESTEDA'A, after controlling for age and gender the new job level and new job type influence the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

Since there are two dependent variables: distributive justice and procedural justice, therefore, this hypothesis should be tested twice. A summary of the results of these tests is presented in Table 7.14, whereas the detailed Tables are presented in Appendix F. The computed values of Durbin-Watson statistic (D) showed that none of the multiple regressions models had positive or negative autocorrelation, which implies that the assumption of independence of errors was not violated (Berenson and Levine, 1999). Further, the

computed values of Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) indicated that none of the entered variables had high multicollinearity that may entail redundancy in the entered variables. The values of D and VIF are presented in Appendix F.

(I) Testing hypothesis 1(c) regarding distributive justice

The group of variables 'new job level' had significant contribution ($R^2 = .077$, $p = .005$) to the variance of distributive justice. Nonetheless, as individual variables, only new job type permanent/temporary had a significant negative effect on distributive justice (Beta = $-.210$; $p = .008$). Thereby, whether an ESTEDA person had a permanent or temporary job after ESTEDA'A this would influence his/her distributive justice judgement. The results of t -test show that those who had a permanent job reported higher distributive justice (distributive justice = 2.7590 , $t = 3.467$; $df = 192$; $p = .001$) than those who had a temporary job (distributive justice = 2.1071), which is indicated by the value of beta = $-.210$ for new job type permanent/temporary ('temporary' was coded 1).

(II) Testing hypothesis 1(c) regarding procedural justice

The group of variables 'new job level' had significant contribution ($R^2 = .062$, $p = .015$) to the variance of procedural justice. Nonetheless, as individual variables, none of the dependent variables had a significant effect on procedural justice. Further, the results of testing hypotheses 2(a) shed light on this finding.

Hypothesis 1(d)

Within voluntary cases, after controlling for age and gender, the reason behind requesting ESTEDA'A influence the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

Since there are two dependent variables: distributive justice and procedural justice, therefore, this hypothesis should be tested twice. A summary of the results of these tests is presented in Table 7.15, whereas the detailed Tables are presented in Appendix G. The computed values of Durbin-Watson statistic (D) showed that none of the multiple regressions models had positive or negative autocorrelation, which implies that the assumption of

independence of errors was not violated (Berenson and Levine, 1999). Further, the computed values of Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) indicated that none of the entered variables had high multicollinearity that may entail redundancy in the entered variables. The values of *D* and VIF are presented in Appendix G.

(I) Testing hypothesis 1(d) regarding distributive justice

The group of variables 'reason behind requesting ESTEDA'A' had a non-significant contribution ($R^2 = .033$, $p = .408$) to the variance of distributive justice. Nonetheless, as an individual variable, 'being tired' as a reason for requesting ESTEDA'A' had a significant positive effect on distributive justice (Beta = .172; $p = .043$). Consistent with the negative sign of Beta regarding 'being tired', the results of *t*-test indicate that those who requested ESTEDA'A for 'being tired' reported higher distributive justice (distributive justice = 3.0444, $t = -2.016$; $df = 148$; $p = .037$) than those who did not (distributive justice = 2.5235).

(II) Testing hypothesis 1(d) regarding procedural justice

The group of variables 'reason behind requesting ESTEDA'A' had a non-significant contribution ($R^2 = .069$, $p = .059$) to the variance of procedural justice. Nonetheless, as an individual variable, 'being tired' as a reason for requesting ESTEDA'A had a significant positive effect on procedural justice (Beta = .170; $p = .043$). However, the results of *t*-test did not show a significant difference between the two groups ($t = -1.882$; $df = 147$; $p = .062$).

Hypothesis 1(e)

After controlling for age and gender, whether an ESTEDA'A leaver worked after ESTEDA'A or not moderates the influence of unemployment rate on the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

Since there are two dependent variables: distributive justice and procedural justice, therefore, this hypothesis should be tested twice. A summary of the results of these tests is presented in Table 7.15, whereas the detailed Tables

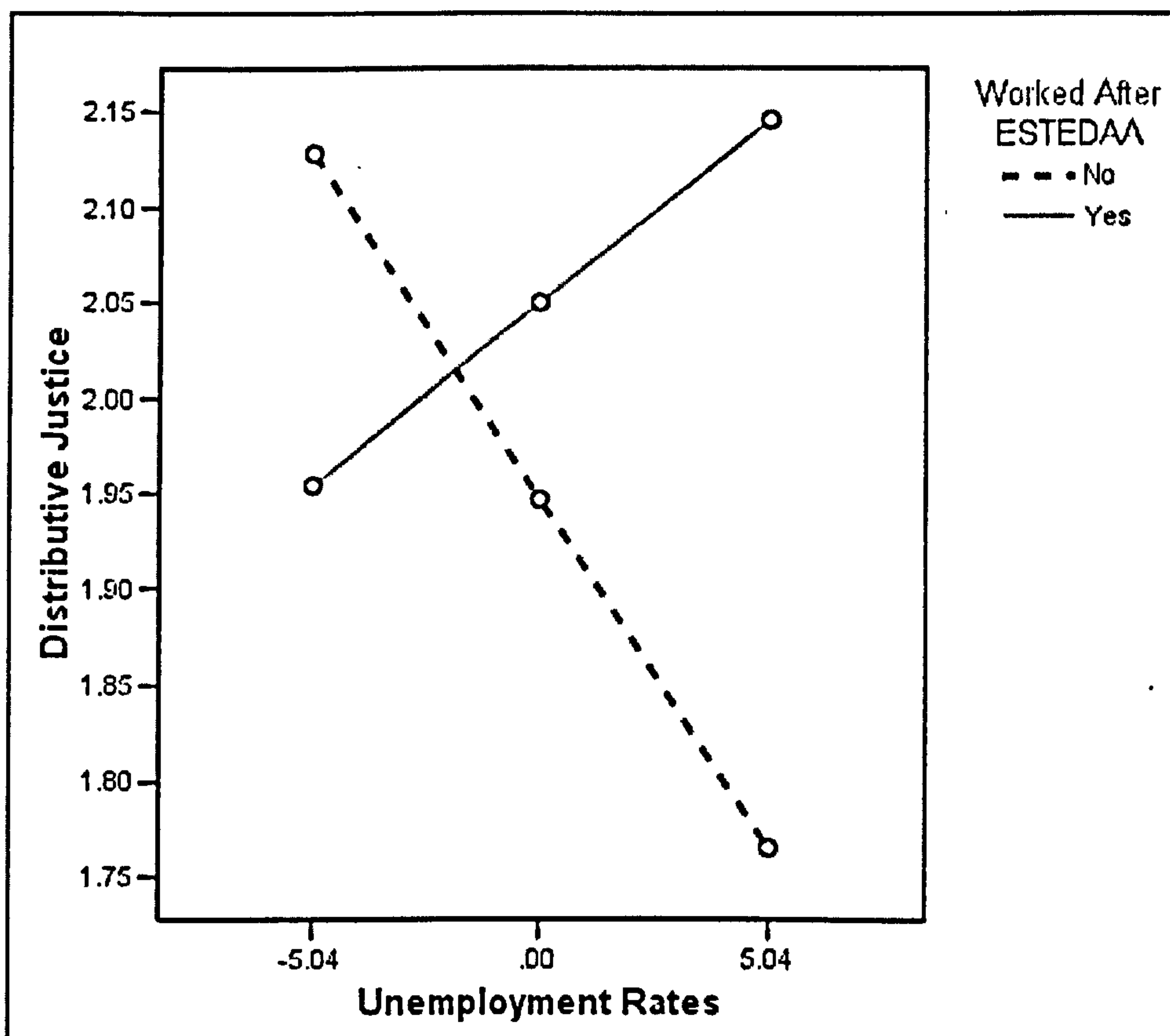
are presented in Appendix H. The computed values of Durbin-Watson statistic (*D*) showed that none of the multiple regressions models had positive or negative autocorrelation, which implies that the assumption of independence of errors was not violated (Berenson and Levine, 1999). Further, the computed values of Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) indicated that none of the entered variables had high multicollinearity that may entail redundancy in the entered variables. The values of *D* and VIF are presented in Appendix H.

(I) Testing hypothesis 1(e) regarding distributive justice

The result of the hierarchical regression shows that after controlling for age, gender, the interaction between working after ESTEDA'A and unemployment rates had Beta= .239; *p*= .026, and the change in *R*²= .019 (see Figure 7.10). This indicates that the two slopes of the two lines shown in Figure 7.10 are significantly different from each other. Thereby this hypothesis is accepted regarding distributive justice. The detailed Table is presented in Appendix H.

Further, it is noteworthy that for ESTEDA'A leavers who participated in this study, not working was associated with the means of unemployment rates. Specifically, there is a significant difference in the means of unemployment rates between those who worked after ESTEDA'A (mean of unemployment rates= 11.49%; *t*= 6.112; *df*= 61.612; *p*= .000) and those who did not (mean of unemployment rates= 17.89%).

Figure 7.10 The relationship between unemployment rates and distributive justice for those who worked after ESTEDA'A and those who did not



(II) Testing hypothesis 1(e) regarding procedural justice

The result of the hierarchical regression shows that after controlling for the controlled variables (age, gender), the interaction between working after ESTEDA'A and unemployment rates had Beta= -.218; $p = .051$, and the change in $R^2 = .014$. Thereby this hypothesis is not accepted regarding procedural justice. The detailed Table is presented in Appendix H.

Hypothesis 1(f)

Within those who worked after ESTEDA'A, after controlling for age and gender, new job level, new job type, change in family income, and having a job before leaving, whether an ESTEDA'A leaver received an informal advance notice or not influence the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

Since there are two dependent variables: distributive justice and procedural justice, therefore, this hypothesis should be tested twice. A summary of the results of these tests is presented in Table 7.15, whereas the detailed Tables are presented in Appendix I. The computed values of Durbin-Watson statistic

(*D*) showed that none of the multiple regressions models had positive or negative autocorrelation, which implies that the assumption of independence of errors was not violated (Berenson and Levine, 1999). Further, the computed values of Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) indicated that none of the entered variables had high multicollinearity that may entail redundancy in the entered variables. The values of *D* and VIF are presented in Appendix I.

(I) Testing hypothesis 1(f) regarding distributive justice

The result of the hierarchical regression shows that after controlling for the controlled variables (age, gender, new job level, new job type, change in family income, and having a job before leaving), 'Informal Advance Notice' had Beta= .069, *p*= .366, and the change in *R*²= .005. Thereby this hypothesis is rejected regarding distributive justice. The detailed Table is presented in Appendix I.

(II) Testing hypothesis 1(f) regarding procedural justice

Second, regarding procedural justice, the result of the hierarchical regression shows that after controlling for the controlled variables (age, gender, new job level, new job type, change in family income and having a job before leaving), 'Informal Advance Notice' had Beta= .328, *p*= .000, and the change in *R*²= .101. Thereby, this hypothesis is accepted regarding procedural justice. The detailed Table is presented in Appendix I.

Hypothesis 1(g)

After controlling for age and gender, whether an ESTEDA'A leaver received an informal advance notice or not moderates the influence of prior job attitudes on the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

Since there are two dependent variables: distributive justice and procedural justice, therefore, this hypothesis should be tested twice. A summary of the results of these tests is presented in Table 7.15, whereas the detailed Tables are presented in Appendix J. The computed values of Durbin-Watson statistic (*D*) showed that none of the multiple regressions models had positive or

negative autocorrelation, which implies that the assumption of independence of errors was not violated (Berenson and Levine, 1999). Further, the computed values of Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) indicated that none of the entered variables had high multicollinearity that may entail redundancy in the entered variables. The values of D and VIF are presented in Appendix J.

(I) Testing hypothesis 1(g) regarding distributive justice

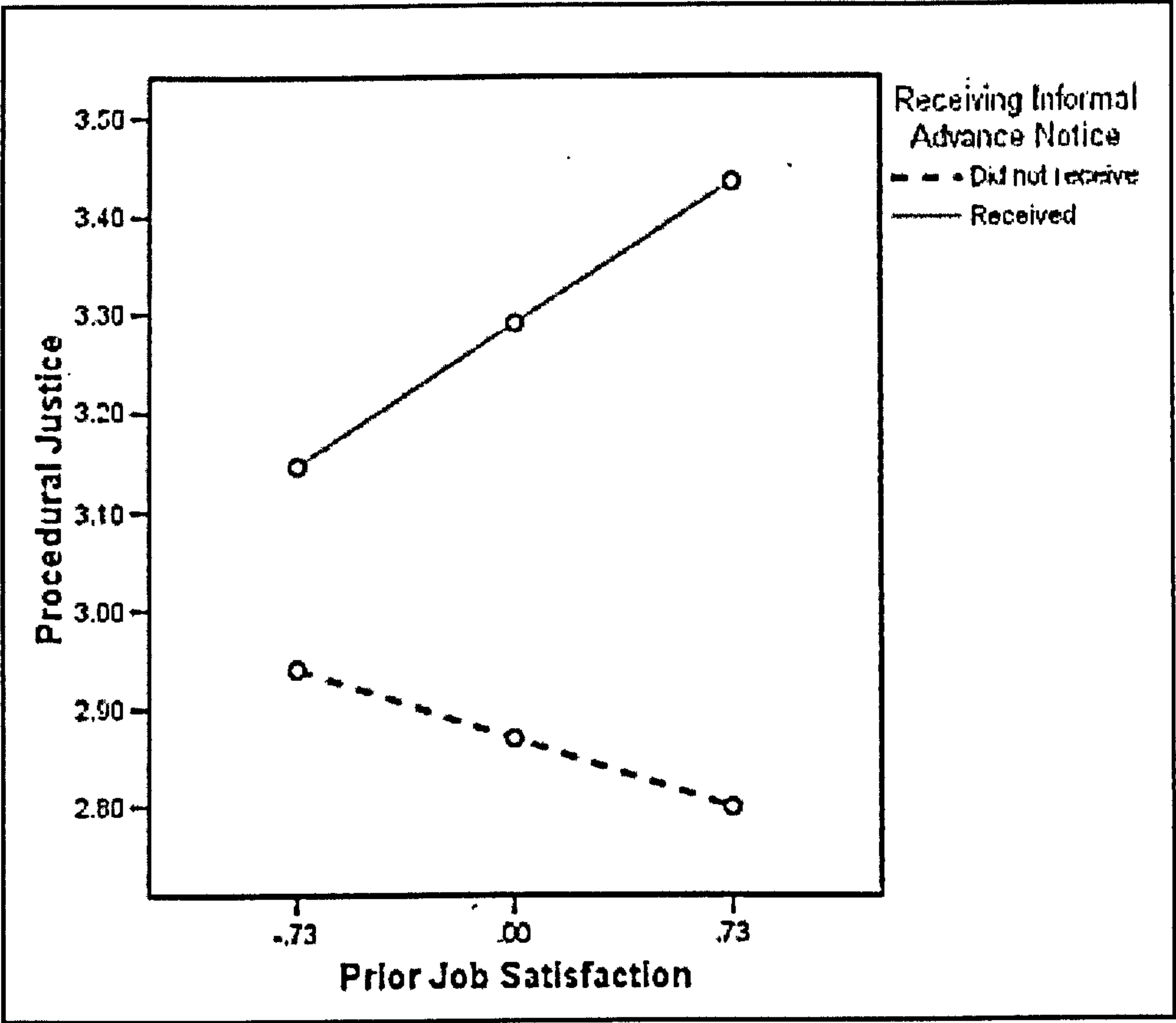
The result of the hierarchical regression shows that after controlling for age and gender, the interaction between informal advance notice and prior job satisfaction had Beta= .003, $p= .974$, and the change in $R^2= .000$, Thereby this hypothesis is rejected regarding distributive justice.

(II) Testing hypothesis 1(g) regarding procedural justice

The result of the hierarchical regression shows that after controlling for age and gender, the interaction between informal advance notice and prior job satisfaction had Beta= .159, $p= .049$, and the change in $R^2= .015$, Thereby this hypothesis is accepted regarding procedural justice.

As the interaction of informal advance notice and prior job satisfaction was significant when entered in the regression model, therefore the two slopes of the two lines shown in Figure 7.11 are significantly different from each other. As shown in Figure 7.11, the line of those who did not receive informal advance notice indicates a negative relationship between prior job satisfaction and procedural justice, whereas the line of those who received informal advance notice indicates a positive relationship between prior job satisfaction and procedural justice.

Figure 7.11 The relationship between Prior Job Satisfaction and procedural justice for those who received informal advance notice and those who did not

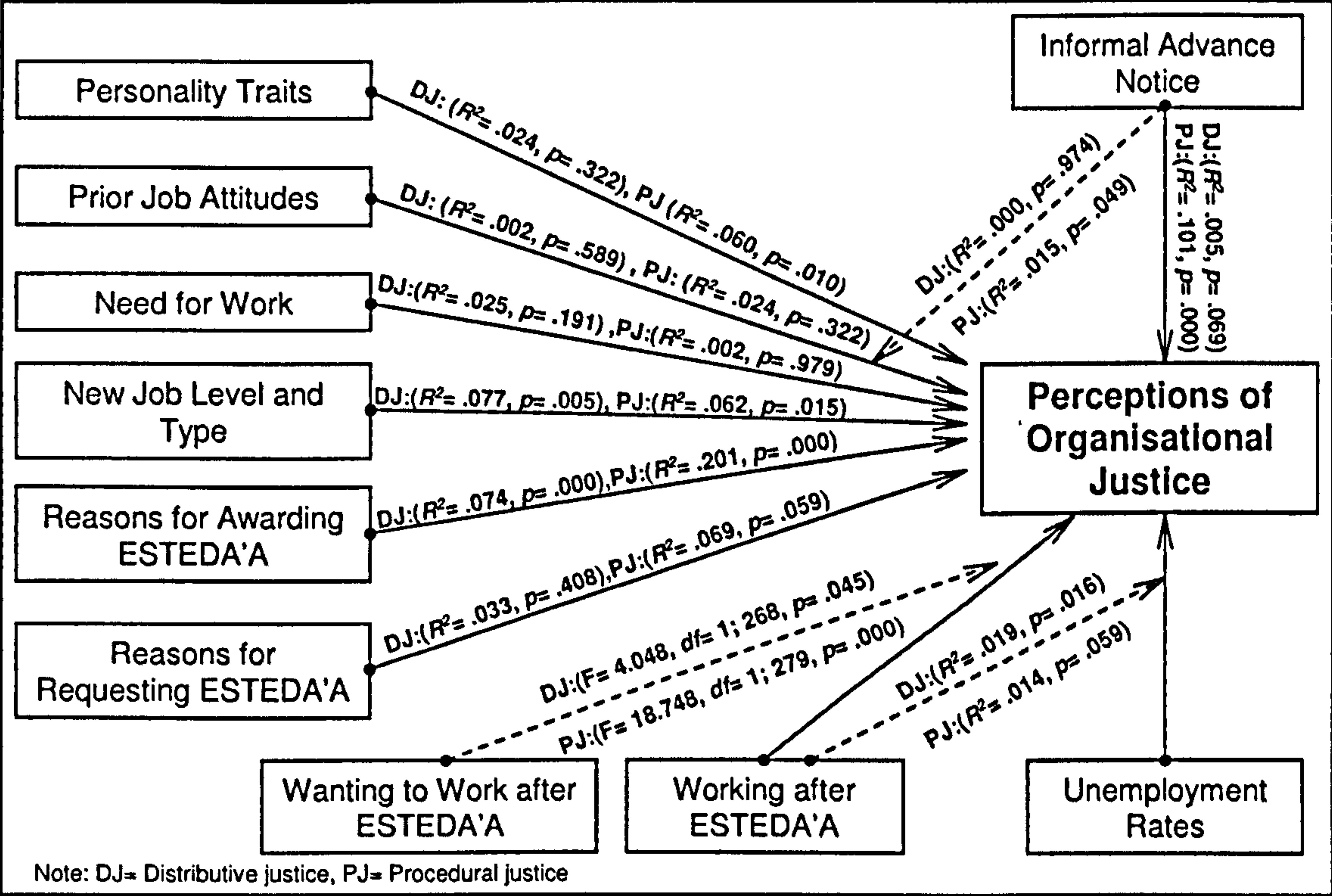


The hypotheses 1(a) through 1(g) were tested in addressing the second research aim. The results of testing these hypotheses are presented in Figure 7.12.

Table 7.15 Summary of the results of testing hypotheses 1(c) through 1(g)

Hypotheses	Variables Set	Independent Variables	Distributive justice			Procedural justice				
			Beta	Coefficient Significance	Change In R ²	Change Significance	Beta	Coefficient Significance	Change in R ²	Change Significance
H1(c)	New job level	New job circumstances	-0.097	0.201	0.077	0.005	-0.079	0.293	0.062	0.015
		New job rewards	0.121	0.160			0.149	0.079		
	New job type	Permanent/temporary	-0.003	0.968			-0.067	0.423		
		Fulltime/part-time	-0.210	0.008			-0.110	0.156		
H1(d)	The reason behind requesting ESTEDA'A	Family Issues	-0.021	0.832	0.033	0.408	-0.143	0.132	0.069	0.059
		Another job	0.047	0.609			0.136	0.125		
		Being tired	0.172	0.043			0.17	0.043		
		Illness	-0.041	0.626			-0.031	0.705		
		Changing my life	-0.075	0.36			-0.1	0.215		
		Working after ESTEDA'A and Unemployment rates	0.239	0.026			-0.218	0.051		
H1(e)	Interaction of		0.069	0.069	0.005	0.026	-0.218	0.051	0.014	0.051
H1(f)	Informal advance notice		0.069	0.069	0.005	0.069	0.328	0.000	0.101	0.000
H1(g)	Interaction of	Informal advance notice and prior job satisfaction	0.003	0.974	0.000	0.974	0.159	0.049	0.015	0.049

Figure 7.12 Summary of the results of testing the hypotheses 1(a) through 1(g)



7.9 Consider the moderating role of ESTEDA'A type in reducing negative attitudes towards downsizing

The correlations matrices presented in Tables 7.11 and 7.12 show that the correlations of procedural justice with the independent variables were significantly different across ESTEDA'A types in two instances (procedural justice with internal locus of control and procedural justice with prior job satisfaction). Specifically, the correlations of procedural justice with internal locus of control and with prior job satisfaction in voluntary cases were higher than in compulsory cases. This may imply the existence of a moderating role in these cases.

Nonetheless, according to Cohen and Cohen (1983, p. 56) it is important to comprehend that

although the test of significance of the departure from 0 is shared by a correlation coefficient and its associated regression coefficients, they do not share the same test in comparisons with their respective counterparts from another sample,

which can be accomplished by a test of significance of an interaction. This discrepancy may appear, for example, when one correlation coefficient r is accompanied by larger standard deviation (Cohen and Cohen, 1983). Therefore, to achieve the third aim of this study, hypothesis 2(a) and hypothesis 2(b) are tested, by which the significance of the interactions of the independent variables and ESTEDA'A type is checked.

7.9.1 Testing the hypotheses pertaining to the third research aim

As discussed in Section 5.4.1, ESTEDA'A can be categorized into two types (compulsory ESTEDA'A and voluntary ESTEDA'A), three types (compulsory ESTEDA'A, induced voluntary ESTEDA'A, and non-induced voluntary ESTEDA'A), or four types (high-referent compulsory ESTEDA'A, compulsory ESTEDA'A, induced voluntary ESTEDA'A, and non-induced voluntary ESTEDA'A). These three categorizing methods represent three ways to measure the variable 'ESTEDA'A type'. Using different measures for the variable 'ESTEDA'A type' can bring about different results and/or different interpretations. Interpreting the moderating role of a categorical variable like 'ESTEDA'A type' depends principally on the logic behind the measurement of that variable. As hypothesis 2(a) and hypothesis 2(b) pertain to the moderating role of ESTEDA'A type, therefore they were initially tested with these three categorizing/measuring possibilities.

First, measuring the variable 'ESTEDA'A type' as four types. As discussed in Section 7.7, when comparing the attitudes of the four types of ESTEDA'A leavers, the differences between these attitudes contradict the logic behind the four-type categorizing. This contradiction appears to be caused by the positive effect of 'organisational needs' as a reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A (see Section 7.7). Therefore, the moderating role of 'ESTEDA'A type' cannot be interpreted according to the logic of categorizing ESTEDA'A into four types. Further, when controlling for the positive effect of 'organisational needs', the results of testing hypothesis 2(a) show that the variable 'ESTEDA'A type' measured as four types has no significant moderating role. This was the case when testing hypothesis 2(b), with one

exception regarding the moderating role of 'ESTEDA'A type' in the relationship between 'organisational needs' and procedural justice¹⁵.

Second, measuring the variable 'ESTEDA'A type' as three types. The results of testing hypothesis 2(a) show no significant moderating role for the variable 'ESTEDA'A type' measured as three types. This was the case when testing hypothesis 2(b), with one exception regarding the moderating role of 'ESTEDA'A type' in the relationships of 'organisational needs' with procedural justice and distributive justice¹⁶.

Third, measuring the variable 'ESTEDA'A type' as two types. The results of testing hypothesis 2(a) hypothesis 2(b) show that there are seven significant moderating roles for the variable 'ESTEDA'A type' measured as two types.

To sum up, with two exceptions, only the dichotomous ESTEDA'A type showed significant moderating roles. The first exception was regarding the moderating role of 'ESTEDA'A type' in the relationship of 'organisational needs' and procedural justice, which was significant when tested for the three categorizing possibilities. The other exception was regarding the moderating role of 'ESTEDA'A type' in the relationship of 'organisational needs' and distributive justice, which was significant when tested for the two-type and three-type categorizing possibilities. Thereby, for testing hypothesis 2(a) and hypothesis 2(b), the variable 'ESTEDA'A type' is considered as a dichotomous variable that has two values (compulsory and voluntary).

Hypothesis 2(a)

After controlling for age and gender, ESTEDA'A type moderates the influences of the independent variables (negative affectivity, positive affectivity, internal locus of control, powerful-others locus of control, chance locus of control, prior organisational commitment, prior job satisfaction, employment commitment, participation in family income, number of

¹⁵ This significant moderating role is reported in Appendix L.

¹⁶ This significant moderating role is reported in Appendix M.

dependents, and new job level) on the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

Since 'ESTEDA'A type' (ET) is a categorical variable, therefore, the significance of its interaction with a continuous variable can be tested via hierarchical regression. As in this hypothesis there are 11 continuous dependent variables (negative affectivity, positive affectivity, powerful-others locus of control, chance locus of control, internal locus of control, prior job satisfaction, employment commitment, number of dependents, participation in family income, new job rewards, and new job circumstances), one moderator, and two dependent variables, this hypothesis will be tested 22 times (11 x 1 x 2) via hierarchical regressions.

Table 7.16 Summary of the results of testing hypothesis 2(a)

Interaction of ESTEDA'A type and	Distributive Justice			Procedural Justice		
	Beta	Change in R ²	Significance	Beta	Change in R ²	Significance
Positive affectivity	-0.138	0.008	0.173	0.047	0.001	0.629
Negative affectivity	0.008	0.000	0.940	-0.115	0.006	0.233
Powerful-others locus of control	0.098	0.004	0.281	0.089	0.004	0.318
Chance locus of control	0.038	0.000	0.717	0.016	0.000	0.871
Internal locus of control	0.059	0.002	0.519	0.182	0.017	0.028
Prior job satisfaction	0.074	0.002	0.481	0.235	0.019	0.020
Employment commitment	0.185	0.011	0.091	0.047	0.001	0.653
Participation in family income	0.057	0.001	0.628	0.170	0.008	0.133
Number of dependents	-0.003	0.000	0.977	0.202	0.017	0.033
New job rewards	0.055	0.001	0.603	-0.235	0.023	0.022
New job circumstances	0.135	0.007	0.206	-0.017	0.000	0.871

A summary of the results of these tests is presented in Table 7.16, whereas the detailed Tables are presented in Appendix K. The computed values of Durbin-Watson statistic (*D*) showed that none of the multiple regressions models had positive or negative autocorrelation, which implies that the assumption of independence of errors was not violated (Berenson and Levine, 1999). Further, the computed values of Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) indicated that none of the entered variables had high multicollinearity that may entail redundancy in the entered variables. The values of *D* and VIF are presented in Appendix K.

(I) Testing hypothesis 2(a) regarding distributive justice

The results of the hierarchical regressions show that after controlling for age and gender, none of the interactions of ESTEDA'A type and the independent variables was significant. Thereby, in these cases, this hypothesis is rejected regarding distributive justice.

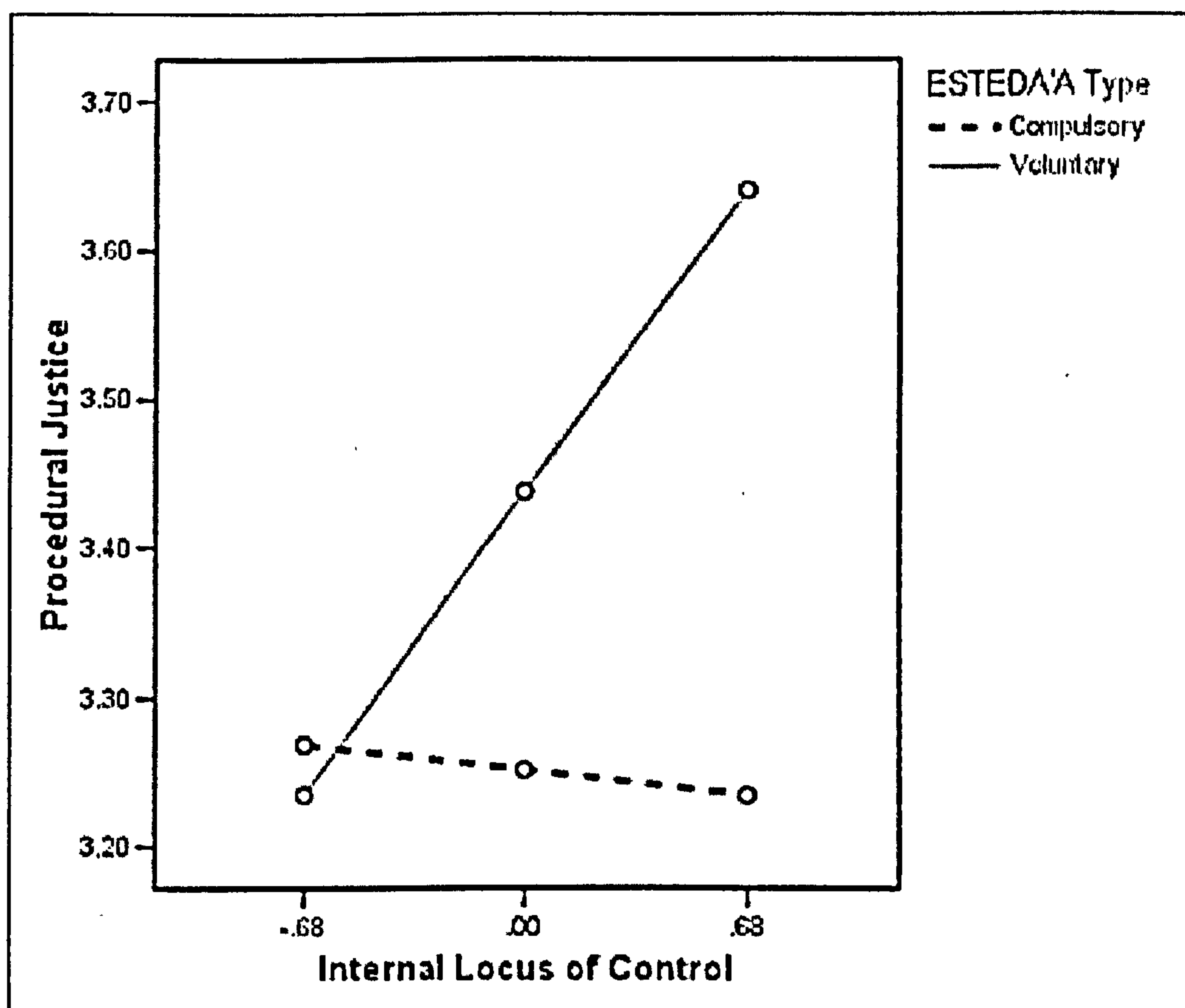
(II) Testing hypothesis 2(a) regarding procedural justice

The results of the hierarchical regressions show that after controlling for age and gender, four the interactions of ESTEDA'A type and the independent variables were significant. ESTEDA'A type moderated the effect of the following independent variables on the perceived procedural justice: internal locus of control (Beta= .182; $p = .028$; change in $R^2 = .017$), prior job satisfaction (Beta= .235; $p = .020$; change in $R^2 = .019$), number of dependents (Beta= .202; $p = .033$; change in $R^2 = .017$), and new job rewards (Beta= .235; $p = .022$; change in $R^2 = .023$). Thereby this hypothesis is accepted regarding procedural justice only in these instances, which are explored next.

(A) The interaction of ESTEA'A type and internal locus of control

As the interaction of ESTEA'A type and internal locus of control was significant when entered in the regression model, thereby the two slopes of the two lines shown in Figure 7.13 are significantly different from each other. Further, the line of voluntary cases indicates a positive relationship between internal locus of control and procedural justice. On the other hand, the line of compulsory cases appears to be a straight line indicating the absence of any relationship between internal locus of control and procedural justice.

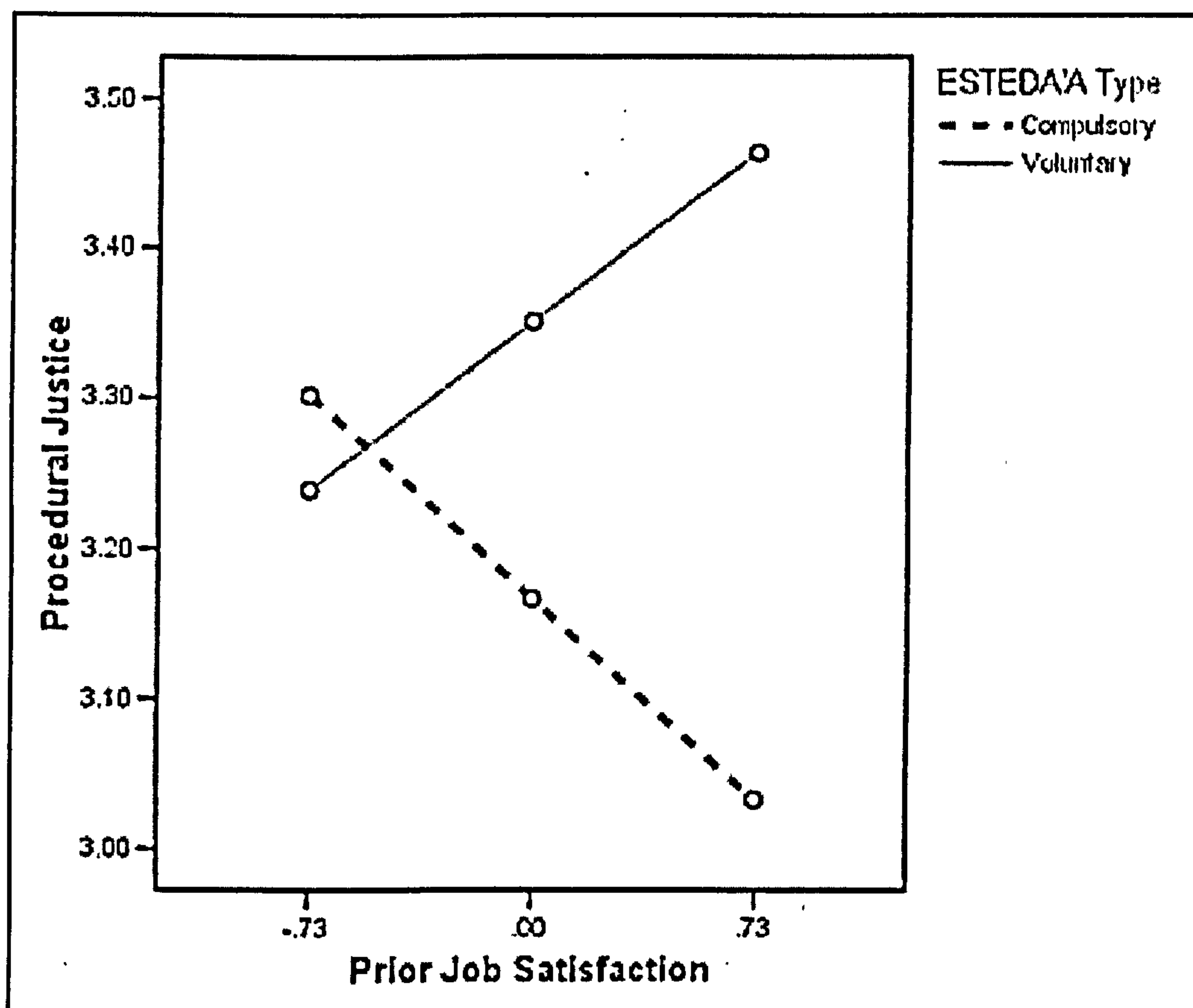
Figure 7.13 The relationship between internal locus of control and procedural justice for compulsory and voluntary cases



(B) The interaction of ESTEA'A type and prior job satisfaction

The interaction of 'ESTEDA'A type' and 'prior job satisfaction' was significant when entered in the regression model, which entails that the two slopes of the two lines shown in Figure 7.14 are significantly different from each other. Further, the line of compulsory cases indicates a negative relationship between prior job satisfaction and procedural justice, whereas the line of voluntary cases indicates a positive relationship between prior job satisfaction and procedural justice.

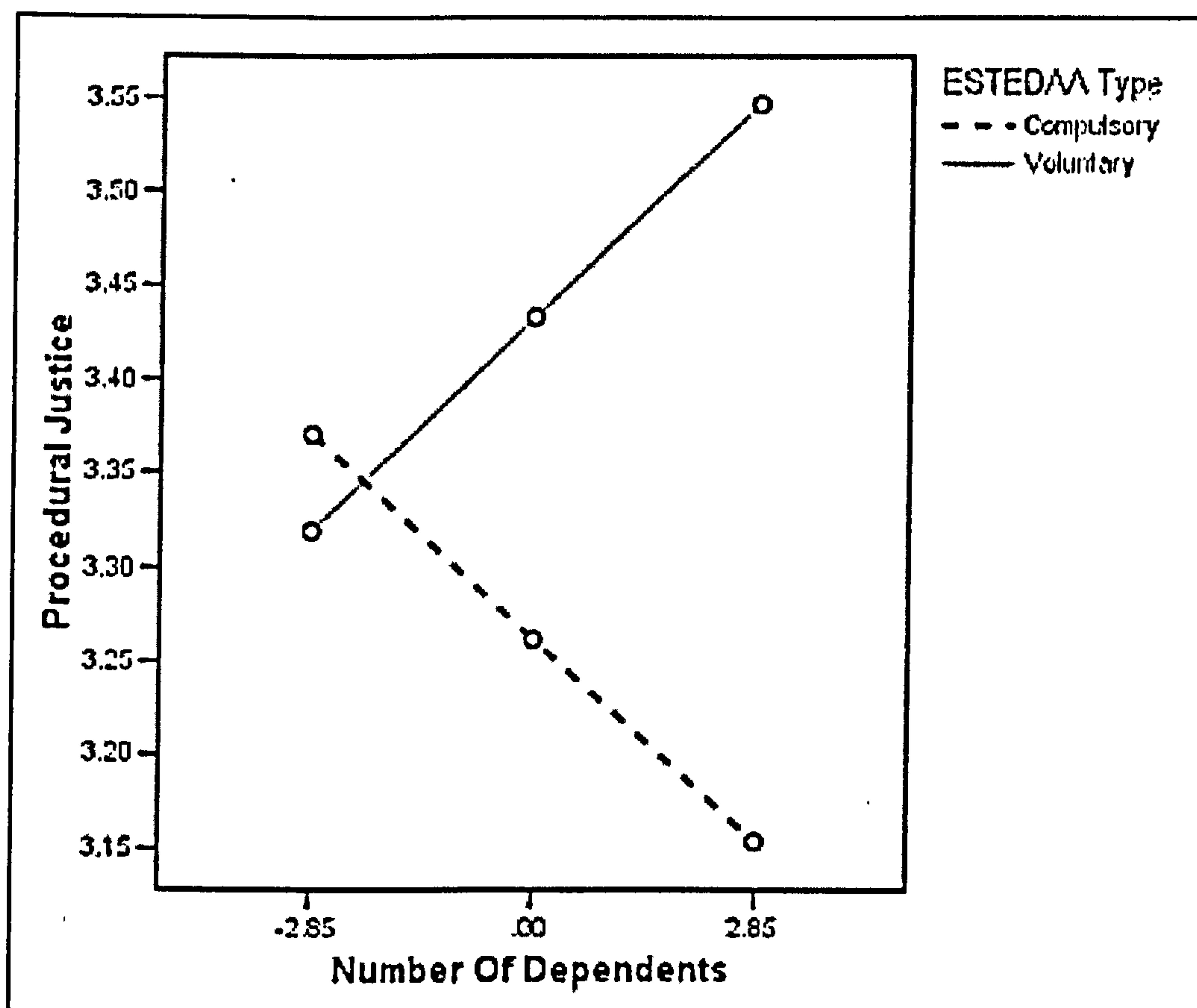
Figure 7.14 The relationship between prior job satisfaction and Procedural justice for compulsory and voluntary cases



(C) The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and number of dependents

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and number of dependents was significant when entered in the regression model, which entails that the two slopes of the two lines shown in Figure 7.15 are significantly different from each other. As shown in Figure 7.15, the line of compulsory cases indicates a negative relationship between number of dependents and procedural justice, whereas the line of voluntary cases indicates a positive relationship between number of dependents and procedural justice. The positive relationship between the need to work represented by the number of dependents and procedural justice for the voluntary cases is considered an unexpected result, and will be discussed in the next chapter.

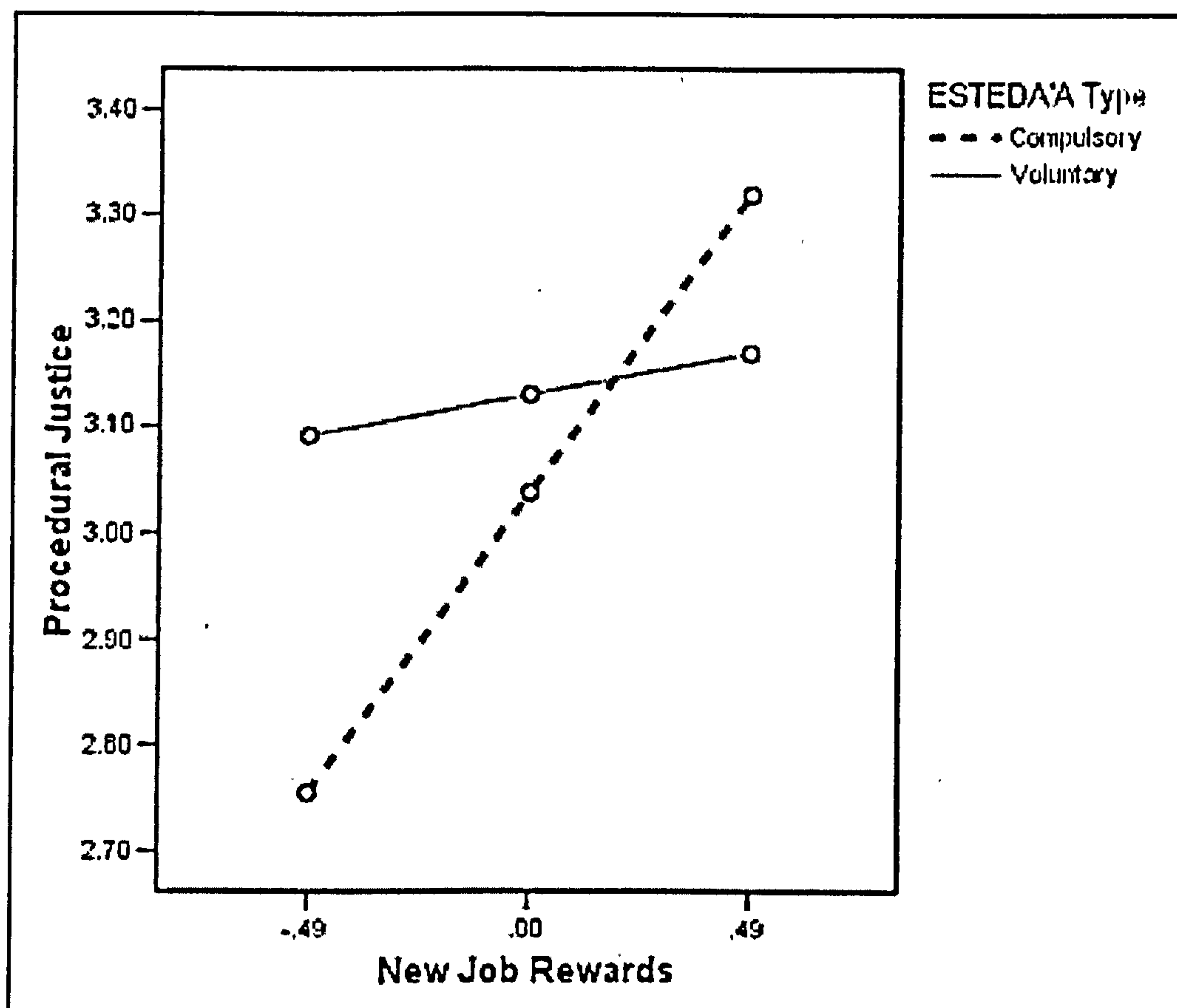
Figure 7.15 The relationship between number of dependents and procedural justice for compulsory and voluntary ESTEDA'A



(D) The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and new job rewards

As the interaction of ESTEDA'A type and new job rewards was significant when entered in the regression model, therefore the two slopes of the two lines shown in Figure 7.16 were significantly different from each other. The line of compulsory cases indicates a positive relationship between new job rewards, whereas the line of voluntary cases indicates a relatively weaker positive relationship between new job rewards and procedural justice.

Figure 7.16 The relationship between new job rewards and procedural justice for compulsory and voluntary cases



Hypothesis 2(b)

ESTEDA'A type moderates the influence of the independent variables (being main breadwinner, reasons for awarding ESTEDA'A, the interaction of wanting to work after ESTEDA'A and working after ESTEDA'A, new job type, informal advance notice) on the perceived organisational justice of ESTEDA'A (distributive justice and procedural justice).

In this hypothesis, there are 8 categorical independent variables (being main breadwinner, 'organisational needs', 'your needs', 'your performance', new job type fulltime/part-time, new job type permanent/temporary, and informal advance notice) with one moderator and two dependent variables, thereby, this hypothesis will be tested 16 times ($8 \times 1 \times 2$) via two-way ANOVA (Baron and Kenny, 1986; Sá, 2003). Thirdly, in this hypothesis, one of the independent variables is an interaction between two categorical variables (wanted to work after ESTEDA'A and worked after ESTEDA'A) with one moderator and two dependent variables, thereby, this part will be tested twice ($1 \times 1 \times 2$) via three-way ANOVA (Sá, 2003). These tests of hypothesis 2(b)

are presented in the following sub-sections. A summary of the results of testing the significance of the interactions between ESTEDA'A type and the categorical variables are presented in Table 7.17.

Table 7.17 Summary of the results of testing hypothesis 2(b)

Interaction of ESTEDA'A type and	Distributive justice			Procedural justice		
	F	df	Significance	F	df	Significance
Being a main breadwinner	0.377	1, 268	0.540	Not tested		
Informal advance notice	2.979	1, 234	0.086	Not tested		
Your performance	0.309	1, 242	0.579	0.000	1, 254	0.990
Organizational needs	9.332	1, 242	0.003	12.725	1, 254	0.000
Your needs	1.749	1, 241	0.187	Not tested		
New job type permanent/temporary	1.275	1, 190	0.260	0.780	1, 199	0.378
New job type fulltime/part-time	.044	1, 190	0.834	Not tested		
Wanting to work after ESTEDA'A and working after ESTEDA'A	4.528	1, 265	0.034	1.963	1, 275	0.162

(I) Testing hypothesis 2(b) regarding distributive justice

(A) The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and being main breadwinner

The result of Levene's test ($F= 1.086$; $df= 3, 268$; $p= .355$) indicates the equality of error variances across groups, hence two-way ANOVA test is appropriate to use. As the result of two-way ANOVA shows that the interaction between 'ESTEDA'A type' and 'being main breadwinner' was insignificant ($F= .377$; $df= 1, 268$; $p= .540$), therefore, the hypothesis is rejected in this regard.

(B) The interactions of ESTEDA'A type and the reasons behind awarding ESTEDA'A

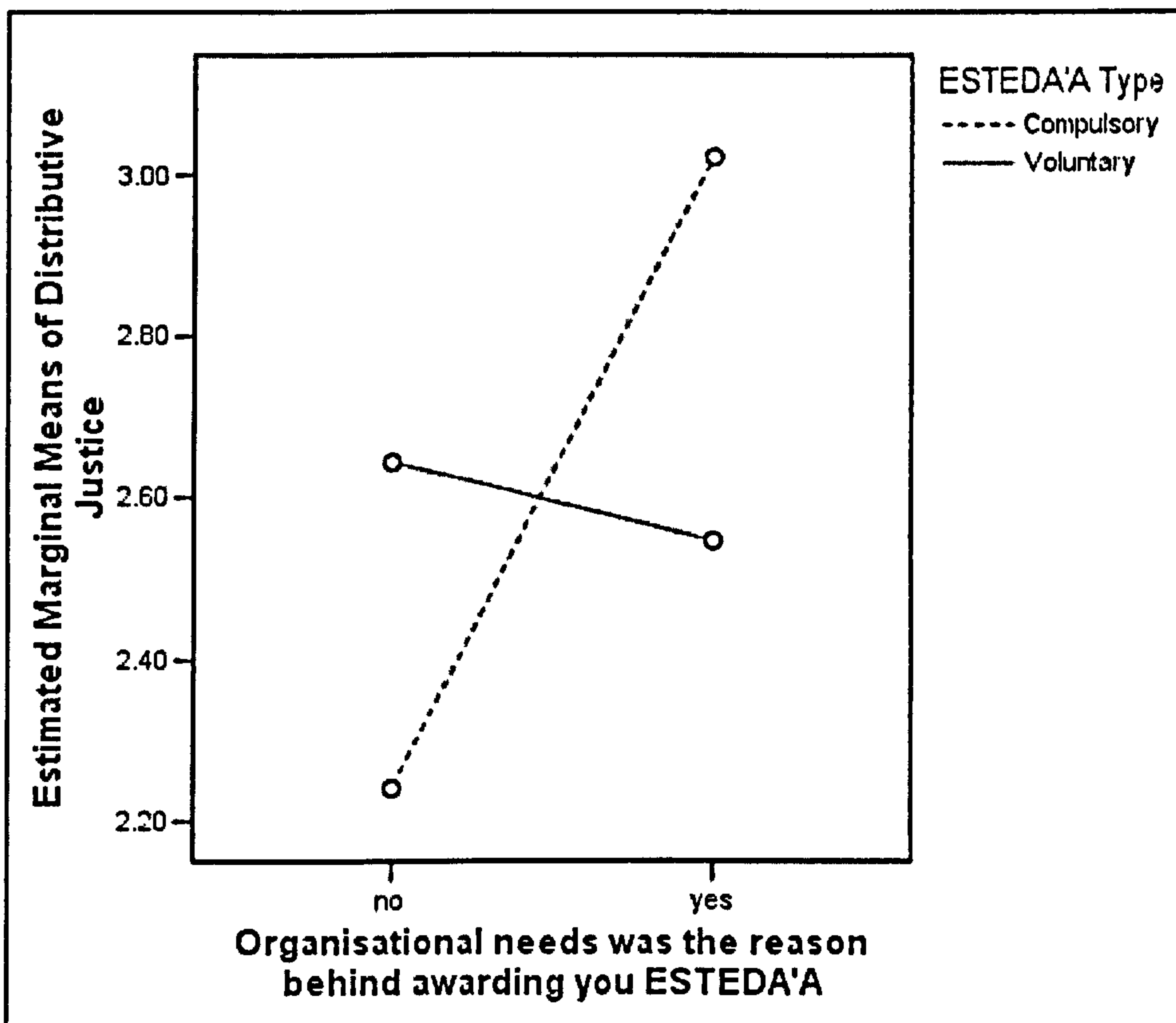
Since there are three reasons for awarding ESTEDA'A, this hypothesis is tested 3 times regarding distributive justice.

First, regarding distributive justice and 'your performance' as a reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A, the result of Levene's test ($F= 1.716$; $df= 3, 242$; $p= .164$) indicates the equality of error variances across groups, hence, two-way

ANOVA test is appropriate to use. The result of two-way ANOVA test shows that the interaction between 'ESTEDA'A type' and 'your performance' as a reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A was insignificant ($F=.309$; $df= 1, 242$; $p=.579$). Therefore, this part of the hypothesis is rejected.

Second, regarding distributive justice and organisational needs, the result of Levene's test ($F= 1.617$; $df= 3, 242$; $p=.186$) indicates the equality of error variances across groups, hence two-way ANOVA test is appropriate to use. The result of two-way ANOVA shows that the interaction between 'ESTEDA'A type' and 'organisational needs' as a reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A was significant ($F= 9.332$; $df= 1, 242$; $p=.003$); therefore, this part of the hypothesis is accepted. As Figure 7.17 shows, the positive effect of 'organisational needs' exist within compulsory cases but not voluntary cases. Within compulsory cases, those who reported 'organisational needs' had higher distributive justice (distributive justice= 3.0233, $t= -3.509$; $df= 109$; $p=.001$) than their counterpart (distributive justice= 2.2400), whereas within voluntary cases, there was no difference in distributive justice between the two groups ($t= .525$; $df= 133$; $p=.600$).

Figure 7.17 The relationship between 'organisational needs' as a reason for ESTEDA'A and distributive justice for compulsory and voluntary cases



Third, regarding distributive justice and 'your needs' as a reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A, the result of Levene's test ($F= 1.553$; $df= 3, 241$; $p= .201$) indicates the equality of error variances across groups, hence two-way ANOVA test is appropriate to use. The result of two-way ANOVA test shows that the interaction between ESTEDA'A type and 'your needs' was not significant ($F= 1.749$; $df= 1, 241$; $p= .187$); therefore, this part of the hypothesis is rejected.

(C) The interactions of ESTEDA'A type with informal advance notice

The result of Levene's test ($F= .948$; $df= 3, 234$; $p= .418$) indicates the equality of error variances across groups, hence two-way ANOVA test is appropriate to use. The result of two-way ANOVA test shows that the interaction between 'ESTEDA'A type' and informal advance notice was not significant ($F= 2.979$; $df= 1, 234$; $p= .086$). Therefore, this part of the hypothesis is rejected.

(D) The Interactions of ESTEDA'A type with new job type

Since the new job type was assessed through two independent variables (new job type permanent/temporary and new job type fulltime/part-time), this part of the hypothesis is tested twice.

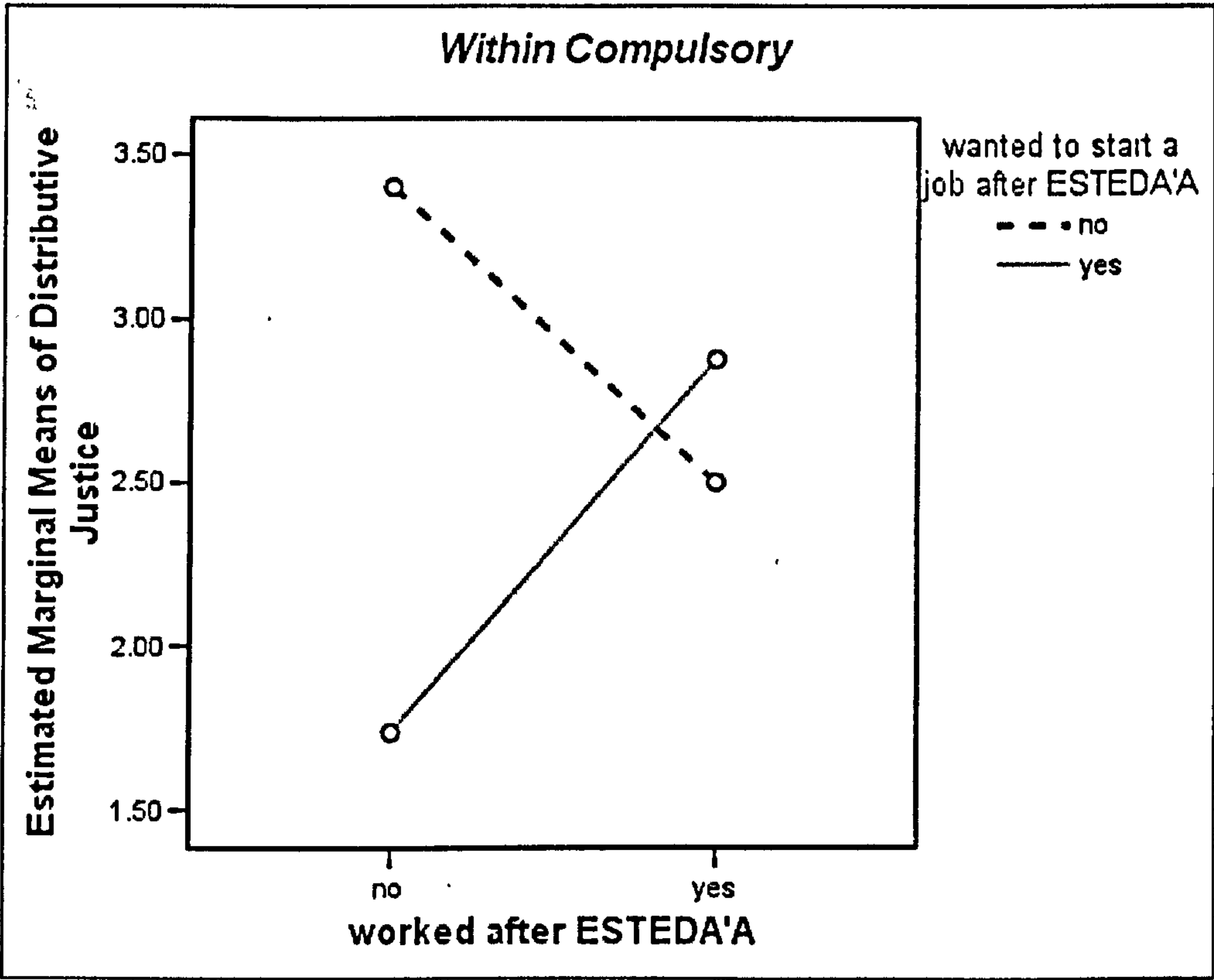
First, regarding distributive justice and 'new job type permanent/temporary', the result of Levene's test ($F = .163$; $df = 3, 190$; $p = .921$) indicates the equality of error variances across groups, hence, two-way ANOVA test is appropriate to use. The result of two-way ANOVA shows that the interaction between 'ESTEDA'A type' and 'new job type permanent/temporary' was insignificant ($F = 1.275$; $df = 1, 190$; $p = .260$), therefore, this part of the hypothesis is rejected.

Second, regarding distributive justice and 'new job type fulltime/part-time', the result of Levene's test ($F = 2.625$; $df = 3, 190$; $p = .052$) indicates the equality of error variances across groups, hence two-way ANOVA test is appropriate to use. As the result of two-way ANOVA shows that the interaction between 'ESTEDA'A type' and 'new job type fulltime/part-time' was insignificant ($F = .044$; $df = 1, 190$; $p = .834$), therefore, this part of the hypothesis is rejected.

(E) The interaction of wanting to work and working after ESTEDA'A

Regarding distributive justice, the result of Levene's test ($F = 1.478$; $df = 7, 275$; $p = .175$) indicates the equality of error variances across groups, hence three-way ANOVA test is appropriate to use. The result of three-way ANOVA shows that the interaction of 'ESTEDA'A type', 'wanting to work after ESTEDA'A', and 'working after ESTEDA'A' was significant ($F = 4.528$; $df = 1, 265$; $p = .034$), therefore, this part of the hypothesis is accepted. This means that the way 'wanting to work after ESTEDA'A' and 'working after ESTEDA'A' interact differs across ESTEDA'A types. As this is a three-way interaction, the interaction of 'wanting to work after ESTEDA'A' and 'working after ESTEDA'A' is plotted in Figure 7.18 for compulsory cases and in Figure 7.19 for voluntary cases.

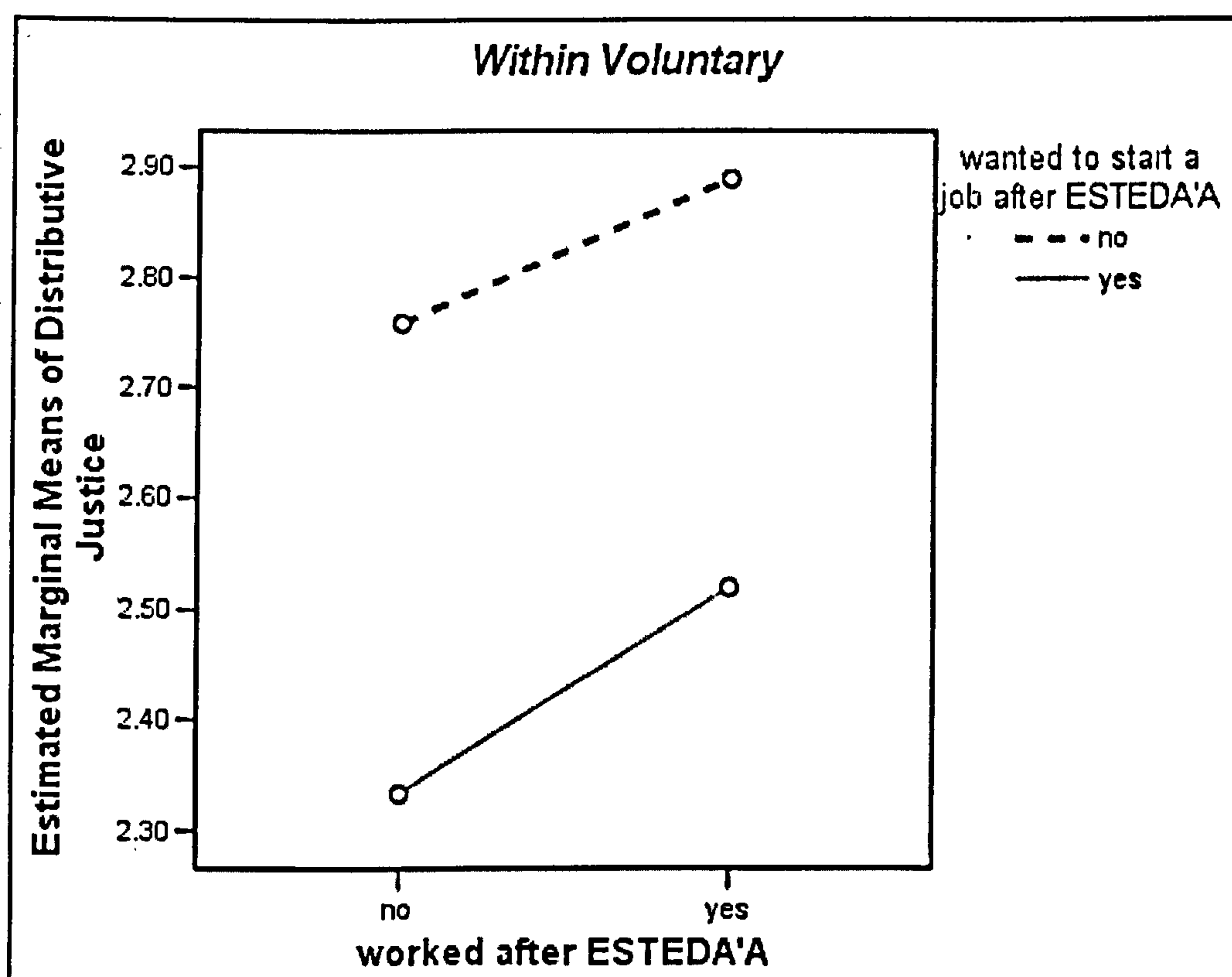
Figure 7.18 The interaction of wanting to work and working after ESTEDA'A against distributive justice for the compulsory cases



For the compulsory cases, as shown in Figure 7.18, ‘working after ESTEDA'A’ had a positive effect on distributive justice within those who wanted to work, and a negative effect within those who did not want to work. However, to examine the significance of each effect, *t*-tests were applied to compare each pair. The results of *t*-tests show that within those who wanted to work, those who worked after ESTEDA'A had higher distributive justice (distributive justice= 2.8785; *t*= -3.571; *df*= 104; *p*= .001) than those who did not work (distributive justice= 1.7333). On the other hand, within those who did not want to work, there were no significant difference (*t*= .967; *df*= 3.926; *p*= .389) between those who worked after ESTEDA'A and those who did not. Nonetheless, the absence of a significant difference appears to be due to the numbers of respondents in each category (4 and 5, respectively). Thereby, for the compulsory cases who wanted to work after ESTEDA'A, the positive effect of ‘working after ESTEDA'A’ on distributive justice was significant. On the other hand, for the compulsory cases who did not want to work after

ESTEDA'A, the negative effect of 'working after ESTEDA'A' was insignificant. This result is similar to the result of hypothesis 1(b), i.e., the effect of the interaction of 'wanting to work after ESTEDA'A' and 'working after ESTEDA'A' on distributive justice for both ESTEDA'A types (the whole sample).

Figure 7.19 The interaction of wanting to work and working after ESTEDA'A against distributive justice for the voluntary cases



For the voluntary cases, as shown in Figure 7.19, it appears that 'working after ESTEDA'A' had a relatively small positive effect on distributive justice for those who wanted to work and those who did not want to work after ESTEDA'A. However, to examine the significance of each effect, *t*-tests were applied to compare each pair. The results of *t*-tests show that within voluntary cases who wanted to work after ESTEDA'A, there is no significant difference in the perceived distributive justice ($t = -.452$; $df = 121$; $p = .652$) between those who worked after ESTEDA'A and those who did not. Similarly, within voluntary cases who did not want to work there was no significant difference ($t = -.295$; $df = 33$; $p = .770$) between those who worked after ESTEDA'A and those who did not. In addition, although Figure 7.19 shows that voluntary

cases who did not want to work reported higher distributive justice than voluntary cases who wanted to work, this difference was not significant ($t=1.533$; $df=156$; $p=.127$). Thereby, for the voluntary cases, there was no significant effect for 'working after ESTEDA'A' on distributive justice whether within those who wanted to work or within those who did not want to work after ESTEDA'A.

(II) Testing hypothesis 2(b) regarding procedural justice

(A) The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and being main breadwinner

Regarding procedural justice and being main breadwinner, the result of Levene's test ($F=3.906$; $df=3, 278$; $p=.009$) does not indicate the equality of error variances across groups, hence, two-way ANOVA test is inappropriate to use. As none of the known transformation methods could overcome this obstacle, this part was not tested.

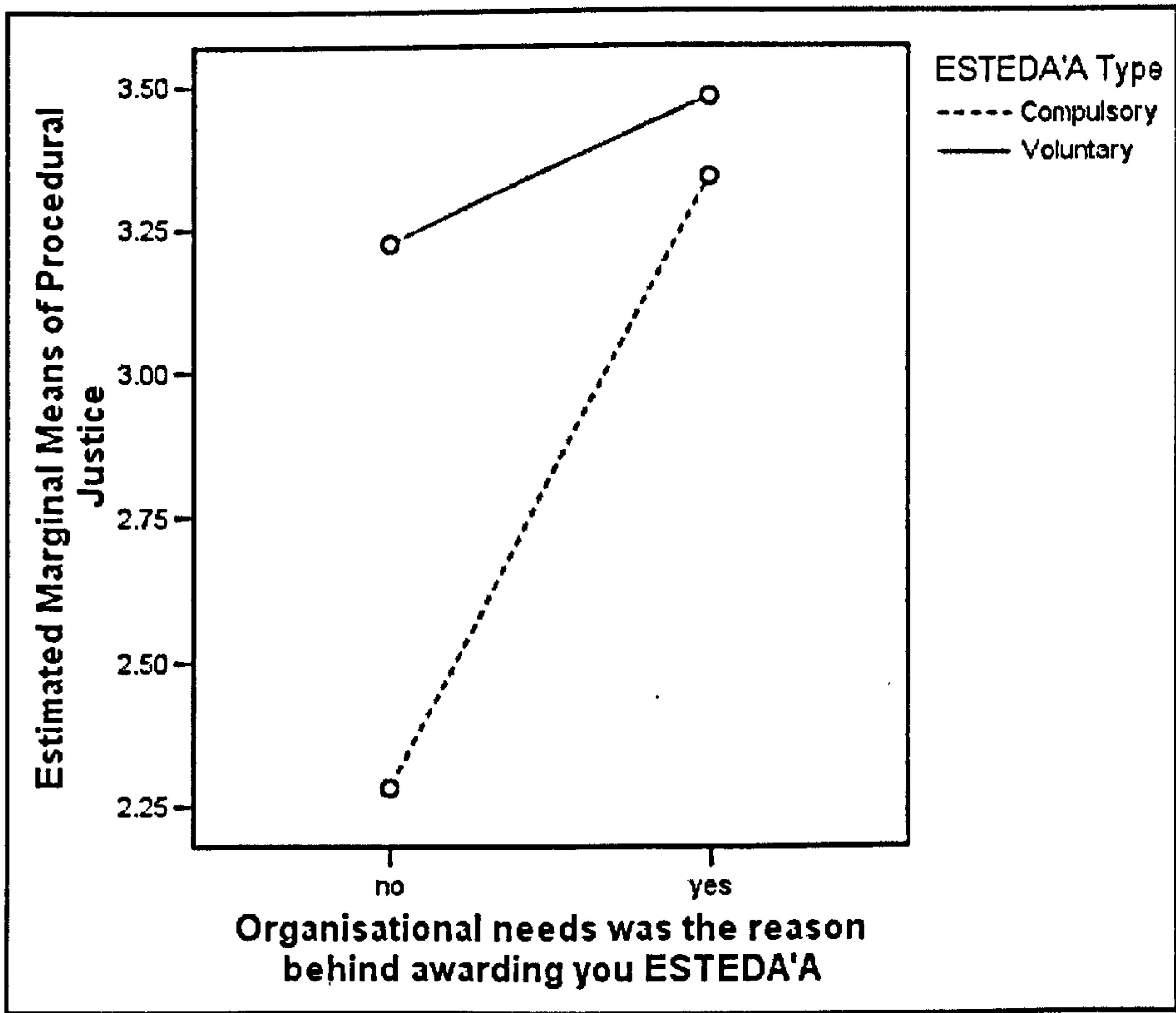
(B) The interactions of ESTEDA'A type and the reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A

Since there are three reasons for awarding ESTEDA'A, this hypothesis is tested 3 times regarding procedural justice. First, regarding procedural justice and 'your performance' as a reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A, the result of Levene's test ($F=2.255$; $df=3, 254$; $p=.082$) indicate the equality of error variances across groups, hence, two-way ANOVA test is appropriate to use. The result of two-way ANOVA test shows that the interaction between 'ESTEDA'A type' and 'your performance' as a reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A was insignificant ($F=.000$; $df=1, 254$; $p=.990$); therefore, this part of the hypothesis is rejected.

Second, regarding procedural justice and 'organisational need' as a reason behind ESTEDA'A, the result of Levene's test ($F=1.386$; $df=3, 254$; $p=.248$) indicate the equality of error variances across groups, hence, two-way ANOVA test is appropriate to use. The result of two-way ANOVA shows that the interaction between 'ESTEDA'A type' and 'organisational needs' as a reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A was significant ($F=12.725$; $df=1, 254$; $p=$

.000). Therefore, this part of the hypothesis is accepted. As Figure 7.20 shows, the positive effect of 'organisational needs' exist within compulsory cases but not voluntary cases. Within compulsory cases, those who reported 'organisational needs' had higher distributive justice (distributive justice= 3.0233, $t= -3.509$; $df= 109$; $p= .001$) than their counterpart (distributive justice= 2.2400), whereas within voluntary cases, there was no difference in distributive justice between the two groups ($t= .525$; $df= 133$; $p= .600$).

Figure 7.20 The relationship between 'organisational needs' as a reason for ESTEDA'A and procedural justice for compulsory and voluntary cases



Third, regarding procedural justice and 'your needs' as a reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A, the result of Levene's test ($F= 4.346$; $df= 3, 253$; $p= .005$) does not indicate the equality of error variances across groups, hence, two-way ANOVA test is inappropriate to use. As none of the known transformation methods could overcome this obstacle, this part was not tested.

(C) The interactions of ESTEDA'A type with informal advance notice

Regarding procedural justice, the result of Levene's test ($F= 4.301$; $df= 3, 239$; $p= .006$) does not indicate the equality of error variances across groups, hence two-way ANOVA test is inappropriate to use. As none of the known transformation methods could overcome this obstacle, therefore, this part of the hypothesis was not tested regarding procedural justice.

(D) The Interactions of ESTEDA'A type with new job type

Since the new job type was assessed through two independent variables (new job type permanent/temporary and new job type fulltime/part-time), this part of the hypothesis is tested twice.

First, regarding procedural justice and 'new job type permanent/temporary', the result of Levene's test ($F= 1.661$; $df= 3, 199$; $p= .177$) indicates the equality of error variances across groups, hence two-way ANOVA test is appropriate to use. As the result of two-way ANOVA shows that the interaction between 'ESTEDA'A type' and 'new job type permanent/temporary' was insignificant ($F= .780$; $df= 1, 199$; $p= .378$), therefore, this part of the hypothesis is rejected.

Second, regarding procedural justice and 'new job type fulltime/part-time', result of Levene's test ($F= 9.408$; $df= 3, 199$; $p= .000$) does not indicate the equality of error variances across groups, hence two-way ANOVA test is inappropriate to use. As none of the known transformation methods could overcome this obstacle, this part was not tested.

(E) The interaction of wanting to work and working after ESTEDA'A

Regarding procedural justice, the result of Levene's test ($F= 1.469$; $df= 7, 275$; $p= .178$) indicates the equality of error variances across groups, hence three-way ANOVA test is appropriate to use. The result of three-way ANOVA shows that the interaction of 'ESTEDA'A type', 'wanting to work after ESTEDA'A', and 'working after ESTEDA'A' was not significant ($F= 1.963$; $df= 1, 275$; $p= .162$). Therefore, this part of the hypothesis is rejected. This means that the interaction of 'wanting to work after ESTEDA'A' and 'working

after ESTEDA'A' does not affect procedural justice differently across ESTEDA'A types. In other words, the differences between the two ESTEDA'A types do not moderate the relationship between procedural justice and the interaction of 'wanting to work after ESTEDA'A', and 'working after ESTEDA'A'.

7.10 Summary of the main findings

The response rate for the questionnaire was 36% of the sample (843), whereas the active response rate 58% of the active sample (sample size less unreachable and ineligible cases equalling 522). Although the response rate was significantly different across gender, this difference was not due to the process of contacting the respondents. Further, However, it was concluded that there is a small possibility for item-non-response-bias, which is inevitable in every research, regarding the factors of gender, year of ESTEDA'A, ESTEDA'A type, age, and educational level.

The sample constitutes of 250 (81.7%) males and 56 (18,3%) females. When sample units were awarded ESTEDA'A, 96% of them were married and their average age was 43. The compulsory cases were 135 (44%), whereas the voluntary cases were 171 (56%).

A justification for using parametric methods on ordinal data was provided. An explanation for not violating the assumption of normality regarding the data was presented. The Factor Analysis brought about 14 constructs (new job rewards, new job circumstances, new job other attributes, employment commitment, powerful-others locus of control, chance locus of control, internal locus of control, prior job satisfaction, prior organisational commitment, negative affectivity, positive affectivity, procedural justice, and distributive justice). The results of Factor Analysis supported the dual dimensionality of organisational justice, the distinction between negative affectivity and positive affectivity, and the three aspects of locus of control. The concerns about goodness of measures (reliability and validity) regarding the resultant constructs were discussed. Due to non-amendable poor reliabilities, two constructs (new job other attributes and prior organisational commitment)

were excluded when hypotheses were tested. Two items of the construct of internal locus of control were deleted to have a moderate reliability for that construct.

Addressing the first research aim showed that, voluntary cases, when compared to compulsory cases, reported more positive attitudes to, and perceptions of, ESTEDA'A. The only exception was the perceived distributive justice. Voluntary cases perceived procedures to be fairer than the compulsory cases did, though they both perceived procedures to be fair. On the other hand, the compulsory cases perceived the outcome marginally fairer than the voluntary cases did, though they both perceived the received outcomes to be unfair.

In addressing the second research aim, testing the hypotheses 1(a) through 1(g) shows (see Figure 7.12) that reasons behind awarding ESTEDA'A, new job level, and the interaction of wanting to work after ESTEDA'A and working after ESTEDA'A significantly influence the perception of distributive justice and procedural justice, whereas, prior job attitudes, need to work, and reasons for requesting ESTEDA'A do not. Further, personality traits, informal advance notice, and the interaction of informal advance notice and prior job satisfaction significantly influence the perception of procedural justice but not distributive justice, whereas, the interaction of working after ESTEDA'A and unemployment rates significantly influence the perception of distributive justice but not procedural justice.

In addressing the third research aim, testing hypothesis 2(a) and hypothesis 2(b) shows that ESTEDA'A type significantly moderates the influence of 'organisational needs' as a reason for ESTEDA'A and the interaction of 'wanting to work after ESTEDA'A' and 'working after ESTEDA'A' on distributive justice, but not procedural justice. Further, ESTEDA'A type significantly moderates the influence of internal locus of control and prior job satisfaction on procedural justice, but not distributive justice.

In the next chapter, the results of hypotheses testing are discussed in the light of the reviewed literature. Subsequently, conclusions are drawn in respect of these results and their relevant literature.

Chapter Eight: Discussion of Findings

8.1 Introduction

The previous chapter, Chapter 7, reported the results of data analysis, which included hypotheses testing. In this chapter, these results are discussed and interpretations are made in connection with the relevant literature.

Firstly, some implications for the results of the Factor Analyses are discussed. This study proposed, through presenting the literature reviews, a classification for downsizing methods and a reconciliation of fairness theories and model, which was integrated into a framework. The usefulness of these proposals is discussed secondly.

Finally, a discussion of the results of hypotheses testing is presented, which is structured according to the independent variables sets. These discussions enable clarifying the contribution of this study to knowledge, which is addressed in the next chapter.

8.2 Results of Factor Analyses

Chapter 3 highlighted the debate about the dimensionality of organisational justice, locus of control, and negative and positive affectivities. The results of Factor Analyses provided feedbacks to these debates.

Regarding organisational justice, the results of Factor Analyses supported the distinction between distributive justice and procedural justice. This distinction was supported by the result of hypotheses testing, as each aspect of organisational justice had different antecedents (discussed in this chapter). Further, the results supported that interpersonal and informational aspects are within the dimension of procedural justice. This result is consistent with the great consensus on the division of fairness into distributive justice and procedural justice (Bobocel and Holmvall, 2001; Byrne and Cropanzano, 2001; Colquitt *et al.*, 2001).

The results of Factor Analyses supported that negative affectivity and positive affectivity are two constructs, i.e., not opposite poles of the same continuum. This result was supported by the different correlations for each of the two affectivities with other variables (see Tables 7.11 and 7.12). This result is consistent with the findings of Watson and colleagues (Watson and Clark, 1984; Watson *et al.*, 1987; Watson *et al.*, 1988; Watson *et al.*, 2000).

Finally, the results of Factor Analyses supported the three-dimensionality of locus of control. This result was supported by the different correlations for each of the three dimensions with other variables (see Tables 7.11 and 7.12). This result is consistent with the findings of Levenson (1974) and Reid and Ware (1974).

8.3 The usefulness of the proposed classifications of downsizing methods and personnel

In Chapter 2, after reviewing several approaches for classifying downsizing methods, a classification of downsizing methods that is based on the downsizing consequences at the individual level was proposed. The results of data analysis support that job loss and unemployment are key downsizing consequences for leavers, which, in turn, can significantly impact leavers' perception of downsizing and its fairness. Apparently, this would be the case for all employees who were directly affected by a downsizing method that terminated their employment.

This method-classification was accompanied by a classification of the personnel in the downsizing organisation. The personnel classification serves in classifying the effect of downsizing on personnel. Consequently, it provides a base for comparing the results of relevant studies.

Therefore, the proposed classifications enable generalizing an approach that can be used to assess the perception of the downsized employees regarding downsizing and its fairness. Consequently, these classifications would help in grouping similar studies, which enables comparing their finding and identifying key factors that can influence the perception of downsizing and its fairness.

8.4 The usefulness of the proposed framework for the effect of the antecedents of organisational justice

In Chapter 3, after reviewing fairness theories and models, a plausible combination was proposed as reconciliation of these theories and models. This reconciliation emphasises the resemblance amongst justice theories and models and provides a perspective through which all these theories and models can be deemed applicable simultaneously.

This proposed reconciliation was integrated into a framework in Chapter 5. The framework was proposed to analyse how the independent variables would influence leavers' perceptions of the various aspects of organisational justice. This framework is not exclusive to leavers' perceptions; rather it can explain the process of evaluating the several aspects of fairness.

As this framework was used in forming the hypotheses, the results of hypotheses testing can be seen through the perspective of this framework. Nonetheless, this research did not aim to test this framework; rather this study employed this framework to explore the possible impacts of the identified factors.

8.5 The results of hypotheses testing

8.5.1 Working after ESTEDA'A

The results of testing hypothesis 1(b) showed that the interaction between wanting to work and working after ESTEDA'A had a significant influence on perceived distributive and procedural justice. This result supports the importance of job loss and unemployment as outcomes of downsizing on the individual level. As explained in Sections 2.7.3 and 5.3.5, the interaction of 'wanting to work' and 'working after ESTEDA'A' has four possibilities. The two possibilities (worked and did not work) that pertain to leavers who wanted to work were addressed by previous studies that proved the positive effect of re-employment. The other two possibilities that pertain to leavers who did not

want to work were addressed in this study for the first time. Nonetheless, in these two possibilities, 'working after job loss' is expected to have a negative effect on the perceived distributive justice and procedural justice, especially because leavers did not want to work. The four possibilities were tested for the whole sample –in hypothesis 1(b)- and for the two ESTEDA'A types separately –in hypothesis 2(b).

First, considering those who wanted to work after ESTEDA'A. The significant positive effects of 'working after ESTEDA'A' on distributive justice and procedural justice judgements are consistent with previous findings regarding the effect of re-employment (e.g., Kessler *et al.*, 1988; Warr *et al.*, 1988). However, regarding the positive effect of 'working after ESTEDA'A' on distributive justice judgement, it was significant within compulsory cases but not within voluntary cases. This is expected as voluntary cases engendered their job loss and therefore were more able to plan for their re-employment than compulsory cases. Further, as explained in Section 2.7.3, very few studies addressed the voluntary job loss, of which, Hepworth (1980) reported that the negative effect of unemployment was weaker for those who experienced 'voluntary' job loss than those who experienced 'dismissal'. Nonetheless, the positive effect of 'working after ESTEDA'A' on procedural justice judgement was not different across ESTEDA'A type.

Second, considering those who did not want to work after ESTEDA'A. 'Working after ESTEDA'A' had a negative effect on procedural justice regardless of the ESTEDA'A type, and had a negative effect on distributive justice only within compulsory cases. These compulsory cases did not choose to leave their jobs and did not want to work after their job loss, in other words, working after ESTEDA'A resembles leaving their jobs. Therefore, working after ESTEDA'A would negatively affect their perceived distributive justice. On the other hand, these voluntary cases engendered their job loss, but did not want to work after their job loss. Therefore if these voluntary cases experienced dissonance reduction, this would hide the negative effect of working against their wants. This was the case regarding the effect of 'working after ESTEDA'A' on distributive justice. Otherwise, if these voluntary cases did not experience dissonance reduction, the negative effect of working

against their wants would be present. This was the case regarding the effect of 'working after ESTEDA'A' on procedural justice. Nonetheless, this result contradicts the claim that voluntary leavers are unlikely to fault someone else for their decisions to request ESTEDA'A (Cropanzano and Folger, 1989).

Thereby, it can be concluded that the positive effect of re-employment (working after ESTEDA'A) on the perceived distributive justice and procedural justice is conditional upon 'wanting to work' and will be stronger when using compulsory downsizing methods. On the other hand, when the leavers do not want to re-work, re-employment can have a negative effect on the perceived distributive justice and procedural justice.

8.5.2 New job level

The result of testing hypothesis 1(c) showed that within those who worked after ESTEDA'A, their new job level and type had a significant influence on their perceived distributive justice and procedural justice. This result is consistent with previous findings regarding the negative effect of re-employment on a poorer job (Anfuso, 1996; Burke, 1986). In addition, this result supports 'referent cognition theory' in proposing that the likelihood of amelioration has a positive effect on justice judgement. In particular, the new job level and type may represent an amelioration to ESTEDA'A outcomes.

Further, the results of testing hypothesis 2(a) showed that the influence of 'new job rewards' on procedural justice was stronger within compulsory cases than within voluntary cases. This result is consistent with the claim that voluntary leaver are more likely to experience dissonance reduction (Festinger, 1962), and that they are unlikely to fault someone else for their decisions to request ESTEDA'A (Cropanzano and Folger, 1989).

8.5.3 Need to work

The results of testing hypothesis 1(a) showed that the group of variables 'need to work' did not have a significant influence on either distributive justice or procedural justice. This result is similar to those reported by Spreitzer and Mishra (2002), who found that there was no significant association for number

of dependent children, being main breadwinner, and having elderly dependents with distributive justice or procedural justice. In addition, Brockner *et al.* (1992b) reported that the extent of being main breadwinner had non-significant correlations with distributive justice and procedural justice.

Nonetheless, the psychological need to work (employment commitment) as an individual variable negatively influenced distributive justice judgement. This result is consistent with the evidence regarding the effect of employment commitment on perceiving the state of unemployment and its duration (Jackson and Warr, 1984; Jackson *et al.*, 1983; Nordenmark, 1999; Payne and Hartley, 1987; Rowley and Feather, 1987; Shamir, 1986; Warr *et al.*, 1979). Further, the negative influence of employment commitment on distributive justice is similar across ESTEDA'A types.

In addition, the influence of 'number of dependents' on procedural justice is expected to be negative, since 'number of dependents' indicates the 'economic need to work' (see Section 2.7.3). The results of testing hypothesis 2(a) showed that this influence was negative within compulsory cases; nonetheless, it was positive within voluntary cases. Probably an absence of a relationship between number of dependents and procedural justice is expected more than a positive relationship. Although voluntary cases experienced high decision control over ESTEDA'A to the degree that they can be regarded as self-decision makers, but they are not the decision makers, especially that there is a chance for their voluntary ESTEDA'A application to be rejected. Nonetheless, as voluntary cases are ESTEDA'A leavers, this means that the decision of awarding ESTEDA'A was consistent with their decisions to request ESTEDA'A. Therefore, when voluntary cases assess the procedural justice regarding ESTEDA'A, they are assessing a decision that is consistent with their decision. It can be assumed that voluntary cases knew about their economic need to work when they requested their voluntary job loss. The positive relationship between 'number of dependents' and procedural justice implies that the former was considered when they requested a voluntary ESTEDA'A. In other words, it indicates that they requested a voluntary ESTEDA'A to meet their economic need, 'number of

dependents'. This is supported by the fact that for half of the voluntary cases, 'another job' was the reason for requesting ESTEDA'A (see Section 7.2.3).

8.5.4 Informal advance notice

As discussed in Section 3.5.4, providing 'informal advance notice' is an organisational practice associated with the process of downsizing. Such a practice can reflect a good group status, which in turn, can positively influence procedural justice judgement (Lind and Tyler, 1988). The result of testing hypothesis 1(f) showed that the positive effect of 'informal advance notice' on perceived procedural justice was significant after controlling for 'having a job before leaving', new job level, new job type, and 'change in family income'. Therefore, the significant effect of 'informal advance notice' on procedural justice is consistent with group-value model regarding the effect of group status on assessing group decision. In other words, the effect of 'informal advance notice' on procedural justice was not based on securing favourable outcome; rather it could be a result of good group status.

8.5.5 The perceived reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A

In Section 3.5.4, the perceived reasons for awarding ESTEDA'A were categorized into three reasons: 'organisational needs', 'your needs' (leaver's needs), and 'your performance' (leaver's performance). The positive effect of these reasons on perceived organisational justice can indicate that leavers perceived that reason as a good justification (e.g., Folger, 1986).

The results of testing hypothesis 1(a) showed that the group of variables 'reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A' had a significant influence on the perceived distributive justice and procedural justice. As individual variables, 'organisational needs' and 'your needs' had a significant influence on the perceived distributive justice and procedural justice.

'Organisational needs' as a reason for awarding ESTEDA'A represents a reason for downsizing that was perceived as a good reason since it had a positive impact on the perceived organisational justice. The significant effect of 'organisational needs' as a reason for awarding ESTEDA'A is consistent

with previous evidence regarding the effect of justification on procedural justice. Further, it supports the view that justification influences both distributive justice and procedural justice (e.g., Bies, 1987; Bies and Shapiro, 1987; Daly, 1995; Wanberg et al., 1999).

The moderating effect of ESTEDA'A type, which was confirmed via testing hypothesis 2(b), sheds light on the relationship between 'organisational needs' as a reason for downsizing, and perceived organisational justice. It would seem that the positive effect of 'organisational needs' as a reason for awarding ESTEDA'A on perceived organisational justice was present only within compulsory cases. This positive effect on fairness judgement was regardless of the new job level and type, which is consistent with earlier research (e.g., Cropanzano and Folger, 1989; Folger *et al.*, 1983a).

The absence of a significant effect for 'organisational needs' on perceived organisational justice was within the two categories of voluntary cases: those who received compensation and those who did not. This may prove that experiencing decision control by being a voluntary leaver hinders the effect of justification regardless of whether voluntary cases received compensation or not. This is consistent with considering voluntary cases as self-decision-makers (Bies, 1987). Specifically, the reasons behind awarding ESTEDA'A as perceived by the respondents are within the techniques that affect recipients' perception of the nature and causes of the allocation decision (see Section 3.5.4). These reasons aim at minimising responsibility of the decision maker (Bies, 1987).

Therefore, it can be concluded that providing a good reason for downsizing can positively affect the perceived fairness of downsizing outcomes and procedures. Nonetheless, this effect can be overridden by experiencing decision control when using voluntary downsizing methods.

8.5.6 Prior job attitudes

Testing hypothesis 1(a) showed that prior job satisfaction has no significant direct influence on distributive justice or procedural justice. The result regarding distributive justice is consistent with 'the main effect approach'

discussed in Section 3.5.3. Specifically, perceived distributive justice is concerned with specific outcomes while prior job satisfaction and procedural justice share level of generality (Lind and Tyler, 1988). Hence, prior job satisfaction is more likely to be correlated with procedural justice than with distributive justice. Nonetheless, as stated earlier, the significant direct influence of prior job satisfaction on procedural justice was absent as well. This result contradicts the claim of Lind and Tyler (1988) that attitudes towards the organisation and procedural justice judgement have mutual influences. Probably this mutual influence would be clearer while the individual is still connected to the organisation, which is not the case regarding the leaver.

As explained in Section 3.5.4, none of the reviewed studies addressed the effect of prior job satisfaction on organisational justice judgement. Further, the reported findings regarding the influence of prior organisational commitment on organisational justice appears to contradict each other. However, it was argued that the effect of prior job satisfaction would resemble the effect of prior organisational commitment. Based on this resemblance, the result of testing hypothesis 1(a) appears to contradict the reported significant negative correlation between prior organisational commitment and perceived layoff fairness (e.g., Wanberg *et al.*, 1999). The result of testing hypothesis 1(a) also appears to contradict the findings of Mansour-Cole and Scott (1998) that prior affective commitment (15 months before layoff) had a positive correlation with procedural justice (one month after layoff). On the other hand, Brockner *et al.* (1992a) reported two studies; where the finding of study 1 that pertains to layoff leavers is consistent with this result but the finding of study 2 that pertains to layoff leavers contradicts this result.

Considering the moderating effects of 'informal advance notice' and 'ESTEDA'A type' can explain these discrepancies, bearing in mind that prior job satisfaction can be a result of prior organisational practices (see Section 3.5.4). First, the results of testing hypothesis 1(f) show that the relationship between prior job satisfaction and procedural justice was significantly moderated by 'informal advance notice'. Specifically, this relationship was positive for those who received informal advance notice and negative for those who did not. Second, the results of testing hypothesis 2(a) show that

the relationship between prior job satisfaction and procedural justice was significantly moderated by 'ESTEDA'A type'. Specifically, this relationship was positive for voluntary cases and negative for compulsory cases.

According to group-value model (Lind and Tyler, 1988), what is common between the two moderators ('informal advance notice' and 'ESTEDA'A type') is that they can reflect a good group status. Specifically, receiving an informal advance notice can indicate that the receiver has a good group status, whereas not receiving an informal advance notice can indicate the opposite. Likewise, having 'choice' (decision control) by being a voluntary leaver can reflect a good group status, whereas being a compulsory leaver can indicate the opposite. The other common thing between these two moderators is that they can be considered as positive organisational practices.

Therefore, it can be concluded that a leaver's prior job satisfaction can positively influence his/her perception of the procedural justice regarding downsizing when s/he encounters positive organisational practices that are associated with the process of downsizing. Providing an informal advance notice or approving a request for a voluntary job loss can be considered as a positive organisational practices that are associated with downsizing. On other hand, a leaver's prior job satisfaction can negatively influence his/her perception of the procedural justice regarding downsizing when s/he encounter negative organisational practices that are associated with the process of downsizing. Not providing an informal advance notice or engendering a compulsory job loss can be considered as negative organisational practices that are associated with downsizing.

8.5.7 Unemployment rates

As stated in Section 2.7.3, the effect of 'unemployment rates' on leaver's perception of downsizing and its fairness was not explored earlier. Nonetheless, earlier studies showed that 'unemployment rates' have a potential role in mediating the effect of unemployment. The results of this study support the proposed effect regarding 'unemployment rates' on leaver's perception of downsizing and its fairness. The negative influence of

'unemployment rates' on distributive justice was within those who did not work after ESTEDA'A, whereas within those who found a job after ESTEDA'A, 'unemployment rates positively influenced distributive justice. This result supports considering 'unemployment rates' to be the *unlikelihood* of outcome amelioration for leavers who did not find jobs, whereas for leavers who found jobs, 'unemployment rates' indicates how lucky they were. The *unlikelihood* is the opposite of likelihood of outcome amelioration as proposed by referent cognition theory.

This result contradicts the claim of Warr *et al.* (1988) that for unemployed persons, high unemployment rates serve in externally attributing the state of unemployment. Further, this result contradicts the findings of Jackson and Warr (1987) who found that unemployed men in areas with high unemployment rates had significantly better psychological health than those in other areas. Nonetheless, in this study, leavers who were not re-employed do not need to attribute their states of unemployment to high unemployment rates; rather they would perceive their states of unemployment as results of downsizing. Then, unemployment rates would affect their perception of downsizing, which brought about unemployment, and its fairness.

Therefore, it can be concluded that for leavers who were not re-employed, unemployment rates may represent the unlikelihood of outcome amelioration, and consequently, negatively influence their perceptions of the distributive justice regarding downsizing. On the other hand, for leavers who were re-employed, unemployment rates represent how lucky they were to be re-employed and positively influence their perceptions of the distributive justice regarding downsizing.

✓ The variable 'unemployment rates', which is based on secondary data, was used as a method for data-source triangulation. Therefore, the result regarding the effect of 'unemployment rates' shows some consistency between primary data and secondary data. This consistency was also supported by the significant difference between the means of unemployment rates for those who worked after ESTEDA'A and those who did not, where the latter was higher.

8.5.8 Reason for requesting ESTEDA'A

As explained in Section 2.7.3, the effect of the reason behind requesting a voluntary job loss on leavers' perceptions of downsizing and its fairness was not explored earlier. In Sections 2.7.3 and 5.3.7, it was argued that a reason for requesting job loss might indicate a need that motivated/forced a leaver to request job loss. The positive effect of a reason implies that the need behind that reason was fulfilled.

The results of testing hypothesis 1(d) showed that the group of variables 'reason behind requesting ESTEDA'A' did not have a significant influence on the perceived distributive justice or procedural justice. Nonetheless, the reason 'being tired', as an individual variable, had significant positive effects on distributive justice and procedural justice. This result implies that for voluntary cases who requested ESTEDA'A for 'being tired', ESTEDA'A was satisfactory for that need. Further, satisfying the need for requesting ESTEDA'A was manifested on distributive justice and procedural justice.

8.5.9 Personality traits

The results of testing hypothesis 1(a) showed that the group of variables 'personality trait' significantly influenced leavers' perceptions of procedural justice, but not distributive justice. 'Negative affectivity' as an individual variable, had a significant negative influence on procedural justice. This result is consistent with the findings of (Skarlicki *et al.*, 1999). The absence of a significant relationship between 'negative affectivity' and distributive justice is consistent with the findings of (Hochwarter *et al.*, 1995). These results are consistent with the findings of Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) that negative affectivity has a stronger impact on procedural justice than on distributive justice. In addition, the results of testing hypothesis 2(a) showed that 'ESTEDA'A type' did not moderate the effect of negative affectivity on procedural justice. This result contradicts the proposed moderating role for ESTEDA'A type, which is based on the conclusion that the effect of negative affectivity would be clearer in the absence of an objective cause. Nonetheless, it can be argued that an objective reason for negative affectivity

was absent within both types of ESTEDA'A leavers, compulsory and voluntary cases.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the personality trait 'negative affectivity' would negatively influence leavers' perception of the procedural justice that associated with downsizing, whether leavers were downsized compulsorily or voluntarily.

Further, 'internal locus of control' as an individual variable, had a significant positive influence on procedural justice. This result is consistent with the potential effect of 'internal locus of control' as proposed by 'egoistic relative deprivation' (Crosby, 1976).

The results of testing hypothesis 2(a) showed that the influence of 'internal locus of control' is manifested within voluntary cases, but not within compulsory cases. This result is consistent with the findings of Sweeney *et al.* (1991), who found that locus of control moderated the relationship between 'perceived influence' and 'procedural justice', with a stronger relation for internals. Specifically, Sweeney *et al.* (1991) found that the interaction between 'perceived influence' and 'locus of control' has an impact on 'procedural justice'. In this study, the variable 'ESTEDA'A type' resembles the variable 'perceived influence', as voluntary cases can be considered to have experienced more influence on the decision of ESTEDA'A than compulsory cases. In this study, the interaction of 'ESTEDA'A type' and 'internal locus of control' had an impact on procedural justice. The difference between the two studies is that Sweeney *et al.* (1991) considered 'locus of control' as a moderator and 'perceived influence' as an independent variable, whereas in this study, 'ESTEDA'A type' was the moderator. Sweeney *et al.* (1991) found that those with high-perceived-influence and high-internal-locus-of-control reported higher procedural justice than their counterparts. In this study, voluntary cases with high-internal-locus-of-control reported higher procedural justice.

Thereby, it can be concluded that the effect of the personality trait 'internal locus of control' on perceiving the procedural justice associated with downsizing is conditional upon experiencing decision control by using

voluntary downsizing methods. In other words, if the trait of 'internal locus of control' contradicts the experienced decision control, as the case of compulsory leavers, there will be no effect for this trait on the perceived procedural justice. When the trait of 'internal locus of control' is consistent with the experienced decision control, as the case of voluntary leavers, this trait will positively affect the perceived procedural justice.

The personality trait 'positive affectivity' had no significant effect on the perception of distributive justice or procedural justice. This result contradicts the findings of Avery (2003), who reported that positive affectivity significantly predicted the value of voice (process control), and the findings of Chiu (1999), who reported that positive affectivity had a positive correlation with pay satisfaction and perceiving pay equity. Probably the main difference between these studies and this study is that in this study the main outcome was job loss, where all the respondents were leavers, which was not the case for the other studies. This result may indicate that the trait of 'positive affectivity' does not influence leavers' perception of the fairness of downsizing.

In addition, the results of testing hypothesis 1(a) showed that the personality trait 'powerful-others locus of control' had no significant effect on the perception of distributive justice or procedural justice. Nonetheless, the potential negative impact on distributive justice was supported by the significant negative correlation between this trait and distributive justice. This means that the effect of 'powerful-others locus of control' was insignificant when other personality traits were entered in the regression model. This indicates that part of the variance in 'distributive justice' that is explained by 'powerful-others locus of control' is also explained by other personality traits.

Further, that result of testing hypothesis 1(a) showed that 'chance locus of control' had no effect on the perception of distributive justice or procedural justice. This result is consistent with Rotter's (1966) claims that belief in luck implies passivity. This result is also consistent with the claim that people with high-chance-locus-of-control perceive their experienced unfairness to be within the personal type of unfairness, i.e., no one can be held responsible for

what they receive and encounter as proposed by Folger and Cropanzano (1998).

As stated in Section 3.5.4, most of the fairness theories and models did not address the potential effect of personality traits on the perception of organisational justice. The one exception was the effect of internal locus of control proposed by Crosby (1976), which was confirmed by the results of this study. The result of this study also supported the potential effect of 'negative affectivity' on the perceived procedural justice.

8.5.10 The moderating role of ESTEDA'A type

The moderating role of ESTEDA'A types echoed the effect of decision control. Especially that the significant moderating effect was mainly present when ESTEDA'A type was considered as dichotomous variable (see Section 7.9.1). In other words it had two values: compulsory ESTEDA'A (no decision control) and voluntary ESTEDA'A (decision control).

There are several consistent explanations for the moderating role of ESTEDA'A type. As 'decision control' is a procedural aspect, this would explain why the significant moderating effect of ESTEDA'A type was present primarily on perceived procedural justice. These results may imply that the effect of dissonance reduction is primarily on the perception of procedural justice. Especially that dissonance reduction is based on being a self-decision-maker. This is consistent with the claim of Cropanzano and Folger (1989, p. 294) that self-decision-maker 'cannot fault someone else on procedural grounds'. This is also consistent with arguing that voluntary leavers had more time to prepare for their job loss. As confirmed in Section 8.5.6, experiencing decision control by being a voluntary leaver can indicate a good group status that can positively influence procedural justice; this would also explain the moderating role of ESTEDA'A type on procedural justice.

Nevertheless, there was one exception to this conclusion, which is regarding the effect of the interaction between 'wanting to work' and 'working after ESTEDA'A'. In this case, ESTEDA'A type moderated the effect on distributive

justice, but not on procedural justice. This was the only case that the effect of dissonance reduction was on procedural justice absent.

To provide a plausible explanation, the following arguments are considered. First, the moderating role of ESTEDA'A type regarding the effect of the interaction between 'wanting to work' and 'working after ESTEDA'A' (three-way interaction) on distributive justice showed that this effect is weaker within voluntary cases. This result is consistent with other moderating roles of ESTEDA'A type. Second, this three-way interaction entails two decision controls or two choices: (A) regarding job loss, and (B) regarding working after ESTEDA'A. Therefore, it can be argued that the positive effect of the first choice (being voluntary leavers) was hindered by the negative effect of the absence of the second choice (wanting to work but not working). This argument enables deeming the effect of the interaction between 'wanting to work' and 'working after ESTEDA'A' as the effect of decision control, especially because the two possible factors (i.e., re-employment and decision control) have positive effects on procedural justice.

Thereby, it can be concluded that the effect of decision control (choice) is manifested on the procedural justice. This effect can exist when using voluntary downsizing methods. Nonetheless, in case of the interaction between two decision controls (choices), the absence of one of them can hinder the positive effect of the other one.

These interpretations of the results of data analysis are derived in the next chapter, which clarifies the contributions of this study to knowledge.

Chapter Nine: Conclusions

9.1 Introduction

At this stage of the thesis, the question 'so what?' would arise. This chapter aims to answer this question through clarifying the contributions of this study and the academic and practical implications. For this purpose, an overview of the main findings is presented in accordance to the three research aims of this study. At the end of this chapter, the limitations of this study and implications for future research are provided.

9.2 Overview of the main findings

9.2.1 The first research aim

As stated earlier in the introduction of Chapter 4, no study concerned with downsizing in Jordan was found. Therefore, the first research aim of this study, which involves exploring a specific downsizing context in the Jordanian civil service, was explorative and had no relevant hypothesis.

Exploring the ESTEDA'A leavers' attitudes to, and perceptions of, ESTEDA'A fulfilled this aim. Generally, when compared to compulsory cases, voluntary cases reported more positive attitudes to, and perceptions of, ESTEDA'A. The only exception was the perceived distributive justice. Further, they both perceived procedures to be fair and outcomes to be unfair. They both were more likely to agree that there were fairer alternatives, and that they were not over-rewarded. When thinking about ESTEDA'A, they both were more likely to disagree that they felt rewarded. In contrast, compulsory cases were more likely to agree that when thinking about ESTEDA'A they feel wronged and feel betrayed, and do not feel being given an opportunity, unlike voluntary cases.

Leavers' attitudes were also compared between those who were awarded ESTEDA'A in 1998 or before and those who had ESTEDA'A after 1998. These comparisons showed that the attitudes of voluntary leavers did change significantly after the new regulation of 1998 that resulted in voluntary leavers

not receiving incentives any more. This result contradicts the logic behind the three-type classification of ESTEDA'A. In addition, these comparisons showed that the attitudes of compulsory leavers who had ESTEDA'A after 1998 were better than the attitudes of their counterparts. This result contradicts the logic behind the four-type classification of ESTEDA'A.

9.2.2 The second research aim

The second research aim was addressed by testing seven relevant hypotheses. The ESTEDA'A leavers' perceptions of the organisational justice regarding ESTEDA'A were compared and contrasted according to the independent variables.

Regarding distributive justice, the results showed that personality traits, prior job attitudes, informal advance notice, and the interaction of informal advance notice and prior job satisfaction did not affect ESTEDA'A leavers' perceptions of the distributive justice regarding ESTEDA'A. Such results are further explored when considering the moderating roles of ESTEDA'A type. In contrast, the perceived reasons behind awarding ESTEDA'A, which has a procedural aspect, significantly contributed to the variances in distributive justice scores.

The outcome related (or, work related) dependent variables influenced distributive justice, except need to work. Specifically, working after ESTEDA'A, conditional upon wanting to work, significantly influenced leavers' perceptions of distributive justice. Within those who worked after ESTEDA'A, the new job level and type significantly contributed to the variances in their distributive justice assessments. Similarly, the significant influence of unemployment rates on distributive justice was conditional upon working after ESTEDA'A. Nonetheless, 'need to work' did not influence distributive justice, where only employment commitment had a significant influence as individual variable.

Voluntary cases' assessment of distributive justice was not influenced by their reasons for requesting ESTEDA'A. Nonetheless, as an individual variable,

'being tired' as a reason for requesting ESTEDA'A significantly influenced distributive justice.

Regarding procedural justice, the results showed that the personality traits significantly contributed to the variance in perceived procedural justice. The two personality traits that were significant in the regression model were negative affectivity and internal locus of control.

Prior job attitudes (prior job satisfaction) did not have a direct relation with procedural justice. Nevertheless, informal advance notice, which is procedural aspect, significantly moderated the relationship between prior job satisfaction and procedural justice. Informal advance notice also had a direct relation with procedural justice, where after controlling for outcome aspects (having a job before leaving, new job level and type, and changes in family income) it significantly contributed to the variances in procedural justice. Another procedural aspect is the perceived reasons behind ESTEDA'A, which significantly contributed to the variances in procedural justice.

The outcome related factor 'working after ESTEDA'A', conditional upon 'wanting to work', had a significant effect on procedural justice. Nonetheless, 'working after ESTEDA'A' did not moderate the effect of unemployment rates on procedural justice. Within those who worked after ESTEDA'A, new job type and level had a significant contribution to the variances in procedural justice. On the other hand, 'need to work' did not have any significant influence on procedural justice.

Voluntary cases' assessment of procedural justice was not influenced by their reasons for requesting ESTEDA'A. Nonetheless, as an individual variable, 'being tired' as a reason for requesting ESTEDA'A significantly influenced procedural justice. As this was also the case for voluntary cases' assessment of distributive justice, this may imply that ESTEDA'A did not fulfil the needs behind the other reasons.

9.2.3 The third research aim

The third research aim was addressed by testing its relevant hypotheses. The moderating roles of ESTEDA'A types on the relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variables were considered to fulfil this research aim.

ESTEDA'A type moderated the interaction of 'wanting to work' and 'working after ESTEDA'A' on distributive justice, which was the only case regarding distributive justice, whereas the moderating effect of ESTEDA'A type was present regarding procedural justice in four cases. Specifically, ESTEDA'A type moderated the effects of internal locus of control, new job rewards, prior job satisfaction, and number of dependents on procedural justice. Two of these independent variables were outcome related ('new job rewards' and 'number of dependent'). Further, the way that ESTEDA'A type moderated the effect of prior job satisfaction on procedural justice was similar to how informal advance notice moderated the effect of prior job satisfaction on procedural justice.

The moderating role of ESTEDA'A type shows that the over-riding characteristics of the ESTEDA'A is the decision control (choice), specially that the only case that ESTEDA'A type moderated the effect of the independent variables on distributive justice was regarding the interaction of 'wanting to work' and 'working after ESTEDA'A'. This case showed that there is no difference in the perceived distributive justice within voluntary cases, (A) between those who worked and those who did not work, and (B) between those who wanted to work and those who did not want to work.

9.3 Contributions of this study to knowledge

This study contributes to the knowledge of downsizing and organisational justice in several ways. These contributions are classified into academic implications and practical implications.

9.3.1 Academic implications

The results of this study have several academic implications. These academic implications, which are based on the findings discussion, represent the feedback of this study to the relevant literature. The academic implications that constitute a part of this study's contributions to knowledge can be categorized into three groups. The first group pertains to contribution in regard of theoretical aspects. The second group pertains to contributions in respect of supporting previous findings. The third group of contributions pertains to new findings.

In respect of the theoretical aspect of knowledge, this study proposes a re-classification for downsizing methods according to their influence on the employees of the downsizing organisation. This classification enables comparing these methods inter- and intra-category in respect of the employees' attitudes and perceptions about downsizing, especially by classifying the possible outcomes for those employees.

Second, this study proposes a re-classification of the personnel in the downsizing organisations. This re-classification facilitates comparing the effects of downsizing within and between groups.

Third, this study contributes to the knowledge regarding the way people make justice judgements. In this respect, a reconciliation of justice theories and models was proposed. This reconciliation highlights the congruence amongst justice theories and models and provides a perspective through which all these theories and models can be deemed applicable.

Fourth, this study contributes to the knowledge regarding the antecedents of justice judgement. In this respect, a framework was proposed that helps to anticipate how the antecedents can influence justice judgement.

Finally, the combination of the re-classification of methods, re-classification of personnel, reconciliation of theories and models, and the framework of how independent variables influence justice judgement consists an approach to investigate employees' perception of downsizing in respect of its fairness.

In respect of providing support to previous findings, several contributions were made through the results of Factor Analysis. These results supported the three-dimensionality of locus of control. This dimensionality was also supported when each aspect of locus of control had different correlations with other variables. Second, these results supported the distinction between negative affectivity and positive affectivity.

Third, the two-dimensionality of organisational justice was confirmed by the results of Factor Analysis. Further, the majority of the antecedents of distributive justice and procedural justice are different. Nonetheless, they may share common antecedents but with different effect strength. This conclusion also supports the distinction between distributive justice and procedural justice.

Fourth, this study supports the argument that job loss and unemployment are the main outcomes of ESTEDA'A. Consequently, addressing these outcomes enhances distributive justice judgement.

Fifth, this study supports other findings regarding the effect of new job level and type on distributive justice, which is consistent with the argument that the effect of re-employment is enhanced by the level and type of the new job. Consequently, addressing these outcomes enhances distributive justice judgement.

Sixth, this study supports the group-value model in proposing the mutual influence between attitudes towards the group and the perceived procedural justice regarding the group. This support is manifested through the new findings regarding the moderating effect of organisational practices on the influence of prior job attitudes on perceived procedural justice.

Seventh, the moderating role of ESTEDA'A type supports the group-value model in considering 'choice' as important by itself and not conditional upon outcome. This moderating role of ESTEDA'A type also supports the theory of dissonance reduction.

In respect of the new findings, this study appears to be the first to consider the effect of downsizing by the method of ESTEDA'A, and the first study that addresses downsizing in Jordan. In this study, characteristics of ESTEDA'A were evaluated in term of their effects on leavers' perceptions of downsizing and its fairness. This evaluation was in an organisational justice framework, where the characteristics represented a distributive or a procedural aspect. For example, whether a downsizing method was voluntary or compulsory represents a procedural aspect, which is decision control (choice). This provides a new hybrid between the two domains of downsizing and organisational justice.

Second, this study considered the effect of several factors that were understudied. This study addressed the effect of 'not wanting to be re-employed', informal advance notice, and reasons for requesting voluntary job loss. Specifically, this study found that the positive effect of re-employment on the perceived distributive justice and procedural justice is conditional upon 'wanting to work'. Further, this study found that the positive effect of re-employment will be stronger when using compulsory downsizing methods. This study also found that re-employment can have a negative effect on the perceived distributive justice and procedural justice if the leavers do not want to re-work. This study also found that informal advance notice contributed to variances in procedural justice. This factor, which is understudied, had a direct relation with procedural justice and moderated the relation of prior job satisfaction and procedural justice. The informal advance notice represents the group status of the recipient as well as provides extra time before the event takes place.

Third, this study found that the positive effect of new job level and type on the distributive justice is stronger for compulsory cases. Consequently, this aspect should emphasized more when using compulsory downsizing methods.

Fourth, with exception to Crosby's (1976) model of Egoistic Relative Deprivation, none of the organisational justice theories or models focused on

the effect of personality traits. Nonetheless, this study provides an empirical evidence for the potential effect of personality traits on procedural justice.

Fifth, this study found that the effect of prior job satisfaction on procedural justice was moderated by organisational practices associated with job loss: decision control (tested through ESTEDA'A type) and informal advance notice.

Sixth, this study found that the interaction between 'wanting to work' and 'working after job loss' can have the effect of 'choice' on procedural justice. Specifically, if the result of 'working after job loss' matches the 'wanting to work', this would have the effect of decision control.

Seventh, this study found that in case of the interaction between two decision controls (choices), the absence of one of them can hinder the positive effect of the other one. This was the case when considering the effect of the three-way interaction of ESTEDA'A type, 'wanting to work', and 'working after job loss'.

Finally, the moderating role of ESTEDA'A type regarding the effect of the reason behind ESTEDA'A may indicate that the experienced decision control may hinder the effect of justification on the judgement of distributive justice and procedural justice.

These academic implications represent the feedback of this study to the theory. Nonetheless, these implications also lead to practical implications that represent the recommendations of this study to people of practice, which represents the other part of this study's contributions to knowledge.

9.3.2 Practical implications

The results of this study show that when using downsizing methods that terminate employees' employment, the use of voluntary methods brings about better assessments of the downsizing procedures and outcomes compared to the use of compulsory methods. On the other hand, using compulsory methods enables the 'management' to control the process of choosing who will leave. When the use of compulsory methods is necessary, the results of this study show that if a leaver wanted to be re-employed and was re-employed this would positively affect his/her assessments of the downsizing

procedures and outcomes. Therefore, providing support for leavers in finding new comparable jobs would mitigate the negative influence associated with the use of compulsory methods.

In addition, this study shows that if a compulsory leaver perceived that the downsizing was done for organisational needs this would positively influence his/her assessments of the downsizing procedures. Therefore, providing justifications and/or explaining the reasons behind the downsizing decision would mitigate the negative influence of using compulsory methods.

Another procedural aspect that was found helpful when using compulsory methods or voluntary methods is providing informal advance notice. The informal advance notice should come earlier than the formal advance notice. Therefore it provides more time to prepare for the consequences of the decision. Further, providing informal advance notice can imply that the leaver has a good group status, which in turn, influences his/her perception of downsizing and its fairness.

Employees' attitudes towards the organisation and their jobs are influenced by the organisational practices throughout the years spent in the organisation. This study shows that the organisational practices associated with the process of terminating employees' employments can determine how the prior job attitudes would influence the assessments of downsizing procedures. Specifically, if the organisational practices associated with downsizing engender positive attitudes towards the organisation, the prior job attitudes will positively influence the assessments of downsizing procedures. Positive organisational practices may include using voluntary downsizing methods or providing informal advance notice.

This study identified several factors that can influence either the perceptions of procedural justice or the perceptions of distributive justice. Nonetheless, some factors were found that they can influence the perception of both procedural justice and distributive justice. It is beneficial that the 'management' consider all these factors, with more focussing on those that can influence the two justice aspects (e.g., re-employment after job loss).

9.4 Limitations and implications for future research

These findings can be generalized with caution to all ESTEDA'A leavers in Jordan, especially that there is a small possibility of response bias regarding female leavers. In addition, sampling error is inevitable, though it was reduced to less than 10% through the sampling technique.

One limitation for this study is its cross-sectional time horizon, which was the only possible way due to time and financial constraints. Another study that adopts the longitudinal time horizon can investigate the effect of re-employment and new job level and type through the time.

The findings of this study need more in-depth investigation that cannot be achieved with the research design of this study. For example, the reasons for requesting ESTEDA'A can be further explored in relation to whether the needs behind these reasons were fulfilled by ESTEDA'A or not. Another example is the perceived reasons behind ESTEDA'A can be further explored to determine the source of their influence, e.g., whether it was due to being good justification or other outcome related aspects. This indicates the need for future research to investigate the case of ESTEDA'A, but with different research design that enables collecting more in-depth data.

Another limitation for this study was the lack of research about ESTEDA'A and downsizing in the Jordan Civil Service and even in Jordan. This would eliminate the possibility to compare the results of this study. Nonetheless, the proposed approach for investigating leavers' perceptions of ESTEDA'A can be adopted or adapted for another downsizing method.

One of the limitation of this study is the there is a lack of standardized measurement for organisational justice (Bobocel and Holmvall, 2001; Greenberg, 1993a). This limits the usefulness of comparing results.

As a number of key findings of this study pertain to moderating effects, it is important to acknowledge that moderator effects can be spurious. Lubinski and Humphreys (1990, p. 385) examined the hierarchical multiple regression analysis, which is used in this study to assess moderating effects, and

reported a possible 'drawback of this technique'. Consequently, Lubinski and Humphreys (1990) suggest detecting nonlinear relationships for the independent variables and/or the moderator variable with the dependent variable. Following these suggestions, Dickson *et al.* (2006, p. 358) reported that the linear interaction 'does not adequately capture' the relationship of the moderator and the independent variable with the dependent variable. These results represent one limitation for this study.

As most of the variables addressed in this study were captured via the questionnaire of this study, this would increase the possibility of common method biases (variance) to be present. The common method variance, which can be a source of measurement error, is the 'variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent' (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). Although there is a consensus among most researchers that in behavioural research common method variance is a potential problem (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003), the possibility of common method biases is regarded as another limitation for this study.

Despite these limitations, this study provided feedbacks to previous studies. Further, this study explored the effect of unstudied factors and downsizing method.

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Appendix A: Copies of Data Collecting Methods

The letter from the Business School Research Office

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Heads of Research

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Tel: +44 1865 48 5638

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Email: revabrown@brookes.ac.uk

date

Mr respondent

Address of respondent

Dear respondent,

Mohammad Al Kilani

Mr AL Kilani is a full-time doctoral student at Oxford Brookes Business School. He is conducting studies into ESTEDA'A, and I would appreciate it highly if you would give him the assistance he needs in order to complete his research. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact me.

With thanks,

Yours faithfully,

Reva Brown

Professor of Management Research

A copy of the checklist questions

Can you please help me by providing information regarding:

- the reasons that might force/motivate a civil servant to apply for a voluntary ESTEDA'A
- how would you feel if you were awarded a compulsory ESTEDA'A
- how to obtain more information about ESTEDA'A

The covering letter including the Participant Information

Research Centre

Professor Reva Brown
Dr Mark Saunders
Heads of Research

date

Mr respondent
Address of respondent

Dear respondent,

Participating in a survey

I am a doctoral student in the UK. The topic I am researching is the attitudes of civil servants who were awarded ESTEDA'A. I enclose a questionnaire, which asks for your views about the topic.

This study aims to:

- Explore employee attitudes to, and perceptions of, ESTEDA'A.
- Compare and contrast the attitudes and perceptions of employees who have been downsized by the method of ESTEDA'A.
- Consider the effectiveness of ESTEDA'A as a method of downsizing in reducing negative attitudes towards downsizing.

You are one of a sample of 843 civil servants who were awarded ESTEDA'A. You were selected randomly from a list of all the civil servants' names who were awarded ESTEDA'A. This list was obtained from the Civil Service Bureau.

The questionnaire forms a major part of my doctoral research, and I would value it highly if you would agree to participate by filling it in. It should take no more than 15 minutes of your precious time to complete the questionnaire. In giving your views, you will also help to further my understanding about the downsizing process.

I must emphasise that your participation is entirely voluntary, and it is up to you to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

Let me assure you that all the information that you provide will be dealt with anonymously and confidentially, and will only be used for purpose of this doctoral study. I will ensure that the data collected from you and others are stored electronically at the University and are password protected. It will be kept for a minimum of five years.

Please complete the questionnaire and return it in the enclosed stamped, addressed envelope by [a date, give them about a week or 10 days].

Should you have any query, please contact me by post at P.O. Box 1976, Amman 11118, Jordan, or by phone on my mobile 077 94 39 33, or the daytime landline 06 566 78 66.

This research has been reviewed by the University Research Ethics Committee at Oxford Brookes University. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact the Chair of the committee on ethics@brookes.ac.uk or telephone the Secretary to the committee on 00441865 4445.

Please note that some persons may find some questions distressing or may raise some personal issues. Please, if you faced any of the above difficulties do not hesitate to contact your local Labour Office for free advice and support.

I am grateful for your kindness, and thank you for your generous help in completing this questionnaire to help me with my doctoral research.

If you would like to have a summary of the results, you will need to provide your name and address on a separate sheet of paper, because all respondents are anonymous, so I don't know who you are in order to send you the results. If that is the case, as the researcher I will ensure that your name will not be associated with the data.

Yours faithfully

Mohammad Hani Al Kilani

Doctoral student at Oxford Brookes University/ The UK

SURVEY INTO ATTITUDES CONCERNING ESTEDA'A

Please answer the following questions by placing a tick in the box next to the appropriate answer(s) or writing your answer when applicable. The following group of questions is about you.

- Q 1. Sex: Male ☐₀ Female ☐₁
- Q 2. Your pension is provided according to the rules of:
The Civil Service ☐₀ Social Security ☐₁
- Q 3. How many years did you work as a civil servant? __ Years.
- Q 4. Please give the year when you finished/will finish your ESTEDA'A period ____.
- Q 5. Did you work in the private sector before joining the Civil Service?
No ☐₀ Yes, for __ Years
- Q 6. When you joined the Civil Service, you considered having more job security as:
the most important reason to join ☐₁
an important reason to join ☐₂
one of the reasons to join ☐₃
not relevant to you ☐₄
- Q 7. Did you **want** to start a new paid job after being awarded ESTEDA'A?
No ☐₀ Yes ☐₁
- Q 8. Did you have a paid job after being awarded ESTEDA'A?
No ☐₀ Yes ☐₁

If your answer to Q 8 was no, please move to read the paragraph before Q 29.

- Q 9. How many paid jobs have you had since you were awarded ESTEDA'A? __ jobs.
- Q 10. Did you find a new paid job before leaving the Civil Service? No ☐₀ Yes ☐₁

If your answer to Q 10 was yes, please move to Q 14.

- Q 11. How long did you wait before you started looking for a paid job? __ months.
- Q 12. How long did it take you to find a paid job? __ months.
- Q 13. How long did you **expect** that it would take you to find a new paid job? __ months.
- Q 14. Do you have a paid job now? No ☐₀ Yes ☐₁
- Q 15. Your current Job is: full time ☐₀ part time ☐₁
- Q 16. And it is: temporary ☐₀ permanent ☐₁

Now please try to compare your current job (or your last job if you don't have a paid job at the moment) with your previous job in the Civil Service, and indicate by ticking in appropriate box whether it is better, the same or worse in each of the following aspects:

	Better	The same	Worse
Q 17. The pay	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Q 18. Supervision by others	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Q 19. Nearness to home	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Q 20. Opportunity to use your skills	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Q 21. Union representation	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Q 22. Working hours	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Q 23. Job security	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Q 24. Type of work	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Q 25. Working conditions	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Q 26. Fringe benefits	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Q 27. Health insurance	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁
Q 28. Over-all comparison	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁

The following five questions are about how you feel about having a job. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Q 29. Even if you won a great deal of money you would continue to work somewhere.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 30. Having a job is very important to you.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 31. You should hate to be unemployed.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 32. You would soon get bored if you had no work to do.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 33. The most important things that happened to you involve your work.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅

The following 12 questions are about the degree to which you feel your life is controlled by chance, powerful people or you. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Q 34. You feel that what happens in your life is mostly determined by powerful people.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 35. People like you have little chance of protecting their personal interests when they conflict with those of strong pressure groups.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 36. Your life is controlled chiefly by powerful others.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 37. Getting what you want requires pleasing those people above you.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 38. Your life is determined by your own actions.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 39. You can pretty much determine what will happen in your life.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 40. When you make plans, you are almost certain to make them work.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 41. When you get what you want, it's usually because you worked hard for it.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 42. To a great extent your life is controlled by accidental happenings.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 43. Often there is no chance of protecting your personal interest from bad luck happenings.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 44. When you get what you want, it's usually because you're lucky.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 45. Whether or not you get to be a leader depends on whether you're lucky enough to be in the right place at the right time.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅

The following 9 questions are about you, the civil service, and your job there before being awarded ESTEDA'A and leaving your job in the Civil Service. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

Before leaving your job in the civil service,	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Q 46. You found real enjoyment in your job.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 47. Most days, you were enthusiastic about your job.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 48. You felt loyal to the civil service.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 49. You felt fairly well satisfied with your job.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 50. You sacrificed personal time to get work done.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 51. You would not consider taking another kind of job.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 52. You expected to work for the civil service for a long time.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 53. You were seldom bored with your job in the civil service.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅
Q 54. You liked your job better than the most of your colleagues liked theirs.	<input type="checkbox"/> ₁	<input type="checkbox"/> ₂	<input type="checkbox"/> ₃	<input type="checkbox"/> ₄	<input type="checkbox"/> ₅

Q 55. This question consists of 20 words that describe different feelings and emotions. Please read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to the word. Indicate to what extent do you generally feel this way, that is, how you feel on the average. Use the following scale to record your answers:

0	1	2	3	4	5
not at all	very slightly	a little	moderately	Quite a bit	extremely
<input type="text"/> Interested	<input type="text"/> Distressed	<input type="text"/> Excited	<input type="text"/> Upset		
<input type="text"/> Strong	<input type="text"/> Guilty	<input type="text"/> Scared	<input type="text"/> Hostile		
<input type="text"/> Enthusiastic	<input type="text"/> Proud	<input type="text"/> Irritable	<input type="text"/> Alert		
<input type="text"/> Ashamed	<input type="text"/> Inspired	<input type="text"/> Nervous	<input type="text"/> Determined		
<input type="text"/> Attentive	<input type="text"/> Jittery	<input type="text"/> Active	<input type="text"/> Afraid		

The following questions are about your details in the year when you were awarded ESTEDA'A, so please answer them in that context.

Q 56. You were awarded ESTEDA'A in the year: _ _ _ _

Q 57. Your age was:

Q 58. Your education level was: Two-year diploma ☐₁ Bachelor degree ☐₂
Post-Bachelor Diploma ☐₃ Masters degree ☐₄ Doctoral degree ☐₅

Q 59. Your marital status was: Married ☐₁ Widowed ☐₂ Divorced ☐₃ Single ☐₄

Q 60. Were you a member of an occupational association? No ☐₀ No ☐₁

Q 61. If yes, please specify: Engineers ☐₁ Doctors ☐₂ Agricultural Engineers ☐₃
Lawyers ☐₄ Geologists ☐₅ Apothecaries ☐₆ Veterinarians ☐₇
Dentists ☐₈ Nurses and Midwives ☐₉

Q 62. Number of persons (wife, children, parents, sister, brother etc) who were sponsored by you: _ _ persons.

Q 63. As a sponsor of your family, your contribution to the family's income when you were awarded ESTEDA'A was: _ _ %

Q 64. As a civil servant, you were in category: _____

Q 65. And degree: _____

Q 66. Putting together all resources of income to the family after ESTEDA'A, it has become:
more than before ☐₁ slightly more than before ☐₂ the same ☐₃
slightly less than before ☐₄ less than before ☐₅

Q 67. Were you awarded ESTEDA'A upon your request? Yes ☐₁ No ☐₂

If no skip the next question, and move to Q70.

Q 68. What were the reasons behind applying to be awarded ESTEDA'A? (Please tick all those that apply)

family issues ☐₁ another job ☐₂ tired ☐₃ illness ☐₄
changing your life ☐₅ other factors.....

Q 69. You think that the decision to award ESTEDA'A to you was taken due to: (Please tick all those that apply)

your performance ☐₁ organisational needs ☐₂ your needs ☐₃
other factors.....

Q 70. Were you notified informally, in advance, about the decision of awarding you ESTEDA'A? No ☐₀ Yes ☐₁

The following questions are about the fairness of some aspects of ESTEDA'A. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

You think that	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Q 71. the period of time between knowing formally about being awarded ESTEDA'A and when you had to leave your job was fair.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Q 72. the criteria that were used to decide which employees <u>would</u> be awarded ESTEDA'A were fair.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Q 73. the criteria that were used to decide which employees <u>would not</u> be awarded ESTEDA'A were fair.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Q 74. the way the management treated you after the decision was made to award you ESTEDA'A became worse than before.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Q 75. the management did their best to explain to you the reasons behind their decision to award you ESTEDA'A.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Q 76. all the employees had the opportunity to challenge or appeal against the decision of awarding ESTEDA'A.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Q 77. ESTEDA'A decisions were implemented consistently across all affected employees.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Q 78. the method that was used to calculate your pension's contributions during the period of ESTEDA'A was fair.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Q 79. the length of the period of ESTEDA'A was fair.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Q 80. there were fairer alternatives instead of awarding you ESTEDA'A typeEDA'A.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5

You think that

Strongly
disagree

Disagree

Neutral

Agree

Strongly
agree

Q 81. by summing up all that resulted from being awarded ESTEDA'A, you would consider yourself to be over-rewarded.

☐₁

☐₂

☐₃

☐₄

☐₅

If you were awarded ESTEDA'A upon your request, please answer which applicable to you Q82 or Q83.

Strongly
disagree

Disagree

Neutral

Agree

Strongly
agree

Q 82. You think that the sum of payments paid to you during your period of ESTEDA'A was fair.

☐₁

☐₂

☐₃

☐₄

☐₅

If you were not awarded ESTEDA'A upon your request please ignore Q83.

Strongly
disagree

Disagree

Neutral

Agree

Strongly
agree

Q 83. You think that not having any salary or remuneration during your period of ESTEDA'A is fair.

☐₁

☐₂

☐₃

☐₄

☐₅

When you think about ESTEDA'A you feel:

Strongly
disagree

Disagree

Neutral

Agree

Strongly
agree

Q 84. Rewarded

☐₁

☐₂

☐₃

☐₄

☐₅

Q 85. Wronged

☐₁

☐₂

☐₃

☐₄

☐₅

Q 86. Betrayed

☐₁

☐₂

☐₃

☐₄

☐₅

Q 87. Given an opportunity

☐₁

☐₂

☐₃

☐₄

☐₅

Appendix B: Research questionnaire and its covering letter in Arabic

السيد الفاضل المشارك/ الفاضلة المشاركة في الدراسة

أنا طالب دكتوراه في إحدى جامعات المملكة المتحدة. أشكر لك تعاونك في إتمام هذا المسح والمتعلق باتجاهات موظفي الخدمة المدنية المحالين على الاستيداع. لقد قمت برفاق استبيان يسأل عن وجهات نظرك حول موضوع الدراسة.

هذه الدراسة تهدف إلى:

- 1- استكشاف اتجاهات وإدراكات الموظفين حول الاستيداع.
 - 2- مقارنة هذه الاتجاهات مع بعضها البعض.
 - 3- مراجعة فعالية الاستيداع كوسيلة لخفض عدد العاملين في التقليل من الاتجاهات السلبية لدى المحالين على الاستيداع.
- أنت أحد أفراد العينة المكونة من 843 من المحالين على الاستيداع والتي تم اختيارها عشوائيا من بين قائمة بأسماء المحالين على الاستيداع. هذه القائمة تم الحصول عليها من ديوان الخدمة المدنية.
- الاستبيان يشكل جزء رئيس في دراسة الدكتوراه التي أقوم بها، وسوف أقيم بدرجة كبيرة موافقتك على المشاركة. تعبئة الاستبيان لن تأخذ أكثر من 15 دقيقة من وقتك الثمين. باعطائك وجهة نظرك تساهم في توضيح جوانب عملية تخفيض العاملين بالنسبة لي.
- لا بد أن أؤكد لك أن المشاركة في الدراسة هي محض اختيارك. بالإضافة فإن المعلومات التي ستقدمها ستعامل بسرية ودون تحديد من هو المشارك الذي قدمها/هي المشاركة التي قدمتها.

الرجاء إتمام تعبئة الاستبيان وإعادته بالمغلف المرفق والذي عليه العنوان والطابع اللازمة، وذلك قبل تاريخ_____

إذا كان لديك أي استفسار أرجو الاتصال بي على الهاتف الأرضي 06 5667866، أو الهاتف النقال 077943933، أو على العنوان البريدي ص ب 1976 عمان 11118 الأردن.

هذه الدراسة تم مراجعتها من قبل اللجنة الجامعية لأخلاق البحث في جامعة أوكسفورد بروكس

University Research Ethics Committee at Oxford Brookes University

في حالة وجود أي استفسار أو ملاحظة في شأن إجراء هذه الدراسة، الرجاء الاتصال برئيس/رئيسة هذه اللجنة عبر الايميل ethics@brookes.ac.uk ، أو الاتصال بسكرتيرة هذه اللجنة على الهاتف

. 00441865 484448

الرجاء الانتباه إلى أن بعض الأشخاص قد يجدون في بعض الأسئلة الواردة في الاستبيان ما يثير بعض الأمور الخاصة. الرجاء في حالة مواجهتك لمثل هذه الأمور الاتصال بمكتب العمل في منطقتك لأخذ النصيحة المجانية.

أنا ممتن للطفك وشاكرا لمساعدتك بتعبأه الاستبيان لمساعدتي في إتمام بحث الدكتوراه الذي أقوم به.

في حالة رغبتك في الحصول على ملخص لنتائج البحث، الرجاء تزويدي باسمك وعنوانك على ورقة منفصلة حتى أتمكن من تزويدك بالملخص، حيث أنني لا يمكنني معرفة المستجيبين. مع التأكيد على أنه في هذه الحالة لن يقرن اسمك بالمعلومات الواردة في الاستبيان.

مع الشكر والعرفان

محمد هاني الكبلاني

طالب دكتوراه في جامعة أوكسفورد بروكس

/ المملكة المتحدة

مسح للاتجاهات المتعلقة بالاستيداع

الرجاء الإجابة على الأسئلة التالية بوضع إشارة ✓ في المربع الذي بجانب الإجابة/الإجابات المناسبة، أو الكتابة عند اللزوم. المجموعة التالية من الأسئلة تتعلق بك:

س1. الجنس: ذكر ☐ أنثى ☐

س2. تقاعدك حسب : نظام الخدمة المدنية ☐ قانون الضمان الاجتماعي ☐

س3. كم عدد سنوات عملك في الخدمة المدنية؟ __ سنة.

س4. الرجاء تحديد السنة التي تنتهي/انتهت فيها فترة الاستيداع ____

س5. هل عملت في القطاع الخاص قبل عملك في الخدمة المدنية؟ لا ☐ نعم، ولمدة __ سنة

س6. عند انضمامك للعمل في الخدمة المدنية كان الحصول على عمل ذا أمن وظيفي أعلى :

أهم أسباب انضمامك للخدمة المدنية. ☐1

أحد الأسباب المهمة لانضمامك للخدمة المدنية. ☐2

أحد أسباب انضمامك للخدمة المدنية. ☐3

غير مهم بالنسبة لك. ☐4

س7. هل كانت لك الرغبة في العمل بعد إحالتك على الاستيداع؟ لا ☐ نعم ☐1

س8. هل عملت بعد إحالتك على الاستيداع؟ لا ☐ نعم ☐1

إذا كانت إجابتك على س8 لا الرجاء الانتقال لقراءة الفقرة السابقة لـ س29.

س9. هل حصلت على عمل أكثر من مرة بعد إحالتك على الاستيداع؟ لا ☐ نعم، __ مرات

س10. هل حصلت على عمل قبل ترك الخدمة المدنية؟ لا ☐ نعم ☐1

إذا كانت إجابتك على س10 نعم الرجاء الانتقال لـ س14.

س11. كم كانت مدة انتظارك لتبدأ البحث عن عمل جديد؟ __ شهر.

س12. كم كانت مدة انتظارك لتجد عملاً جديداً؟ __ شهر.

س13. كم كنت تتوقع أن تكون مدة انتظارك حتى تجد عملاً؟ __ شهر.

س14. هل أنت تعمل الآن؟ لا ☐ نعم ☐

إذا كانت إجابتك على س14 : لا، الرجاء ترك السؤالين س15 و س16.

س15. عملك الحالي : دوام كامل ☐ دوام جزئي ☐

س16. وهو عمل : دائم ☐ مؤقت ☐

حاول الآن عقد مقارنة بين عملك الحالي (أو آخر عمل لك بعد ترك الخدمة المدنية إذا كنت لا تعمل الآن) مع عملك السابق في الخدمة المدنية ثم بين باستخدام إشارة ✓ ما إذا كان العمل الحالي أسوأ أو مشابه أو أفضل في الجوانب التالية.

أفضل	مشابه	أسوأ	
س17. الراتب	3□	2□	1□
س18. الإشراف عليك	3□	2□	1□
س19. القرب من سكنك	3□	2□	1□
س20. إتاحة الفرصة لاستخدام مهاراتك	3□	2□	1□
س21. تمثيل النقابات فيه	3□	2□	1□
س22. ساعات العمل	3□	2□	1□
س23. الأمن الوظيفي	3□	2□	1□
س24. طبيعة العمل	3□	2□	1□
س25. ظروف العمل	3□	2□	1□
س26. المزايا الإضافية	3□	2□	1□
س27. التأمين الصحي	3□	2□	1□
س28. المقارنة بشكل عام	3□	2□	1□

الأسئلة الخمسة التالية تدور حول أهمية أن يكون لديك عمل. باستخدام إشارة ✓ الرجاء تحديد درجة موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك على صحة العبارات التالية:

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س29. سوف تستمر في العمل في مكان ما حتى في حالة فوزك بمبلغ كبير				
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س30. من المهم جدا أن يكون لديك عمل				
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س31. أنت تكره أن تكون بلا عمل				
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س32. سوف تشعر بالملل بسرعة إذا لم يكن لديك عمل				
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س33. أهم الأحداث في حياتك تتعلق بعملك.				

الأسئلة الإثني عشرة التالية تدور حول درجة شعورك أنك تتحكم بحياتك أو أن حياتك يتحكم بها الحظ، أو الأشخاص ذوي النفوذ. باستخدام إشارة ✓ الرجاء تحديد درجة موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك على صحة العبارات التالية:

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س34. أنت تشعر أن ما يحدث في حياتك يتم تحديده بشكل رئيسي من قبل الأشخاص ذوي النفوذ				
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س35. الناس من أمثالك لديهم فرصة ضئيلة في حماية مصالحهم الشخصية في حالة تعارضها مع مصالح جماعات الضغط القوية.				
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س36. الأحداث في حياتك يوجهها بشكل رئيسي الأشخاص ذوي النفوذ.				

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق بشدة
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س37. لكي تحصل على ما تريد يتطلب منك إرضاء من هم أعلى منك.				
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س38. تتحدد حياتك من خلال أعمالك وتصرفاتك.				
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س39. يمكنك إلى حد كبير تحديد ما سيحدث في حياتك.				
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س40. عندما تخطط فأنت على يقين، تقريبا، من قدرتك على تنفيذ ما خططته.				
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س41. عندما تحصل على ما تريد فإن ذلك يكون عادة نتيجة لأنك عملت جاهدا لذلك.				
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س42. حياتك موجهة لحد كبير بواسطة الأحداث العرضية.				
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س43. عادة لا يوجد فرصة لحماية مصالحك الشخصية من أحداث الحظ السيئ.				
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س44. عندما تحصل على ما تريد فإن ذلك يكون عاد بسبب كونك محظوظا.				
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س45. أن تصبح قائدا يعتمد على كونك محظوظا بقدر كاف لأن تكون في المكان المناسب في الوقت المناسب.				
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□

الأسئلة التسعة التالية تتعلق بك، و بالخدمة المدنية، و بعملك في الخدمة المدنية قبل إحالتك على الاستيداع. باستخدام إشارة ✓ الرجاء تحديد درجة موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك على صحة العبارات التالية:

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق بشدة
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
أثناء عملك في الخدمة المدنية				
س46. كنت تجد متعة حقيقية في عملك.				
1□	2□	3□	4□	5□

أثناء عملك في الخدمة المدنية	أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة
س47. كنت تشعر بالحماس في معظم أيام عملك.	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س48. كنت تشعر بالولاء للخدمة المدنية.	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س49. كنت إلى حد مقبول مرتاح في عملك.	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س50. كنت تضحي بوقتك الخاص لتنجز عملك.	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س51. لم تكن تفكر أن تعمل في نوع آخر من العمل.	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س52. كنت تتوقع أن تعمل في الخدمة المدنية لمدة طويلة.	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س53. نادرا ما كنت تشعر بالملل من عملك في الخدمة المدنية.	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س54. كنت تحب عملك أكثر من غالبية زملاءك.	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□

س55. يتكون هذا السؤال من 20 كلمة تصف احساسات ومشاعر مختلفة. الرجاء قراءة كل بند منها ثم كتابة العلامة المناسبة إلى جانب كل كلمة. أشر إلى أي حد أنت تشعر هكذا بشكل عام مستخدما المقياس التالي:

صفر	1	2	3	4	5
بتاتا	بشكل بسيط	قليلا	بشكل متوسط	أعلى من	بشكل كبير
_____ مهتم	_____ مهموم	_____ متحمس	_____ منزعج		
_____ قوي	_____ مذنب	_____ خائف	_____ عدواني		
_____ مندفع	_____ فخور	_____ سريع الغضب	_____ يقظ		
_____ خجل	_____ ملهم (فتح الهاء)	_____ عصبي	_____ مصمم		
_____ منتهبه	_____ شديد العصبية	_____ نشيط	_____ فزع		

الأسئلة التالية تتعلق بتفاصيل عنك في السنة التي أحلت فيها على الاستيداع، لذا يرجى الإجابة عليها في ضوء ذلك:

س56. تم إحالتك على الاستيداع في العام _ _ _ _

س57. كان عمرك _ _ عام.

س58. المستوى التعليمي كان: توجيهي ☐ 1 دبلوم متوسط ☐ 2 بكالوريوس ☐ 3

دبلوم عالي ☐ 4 ماجستير ☐ 5 دكتوراه ☐ 6

س59. الحالة الاجتماعية كانت: متزوج/ متزوجة ☐ 1 أرمل/ أرملة ☐ 2 مطلق/ مطلقة ☐ 3

أعزب/ عزباء ☐ 4

س60. هل كنت عضوا في إحدى النقابات المهنية؟ لا ☐ 0 نعم ☐ 1

س61. إذا كانت الإجابة نعم الرجاء توضيح أي النقابات المهنية: المهندسين ☐ 1 الأطباء ☐ 2

المهندسين الزراعيين ☐ 3 المحامين ☐ 4 الجيولوجيين ☐ 5 الصيادلة ☐ 6

أطباء الأسنان الأطباء البيطريين ☐ 7 الممرضين والممرضات والقابلات ☐ 8

س62. عدد الأفراد المعالين من قبلك (مثل: الزوجة، الأولاد، الأبوين، الأخوان، ...): _ _ فرد.

س63. كانت مساهمتك في دخل الأسرة: _ %

س64. كان تصنيفك في الخدمة المدنية من ضمن الفئة: _

س65. وكنت في الدرجة: _

س66. عند مقارنة دخل العائلة ككل بعد الاستيداع مع الدخل قبل الاستيداع تجد أن دخل الأسرة:

قد أصبح أكثر من قبل ☐ 1 قد أصبح أكثر قليلا من قبل ☐ 2 لم يتغير ☐ 3

قد انخفض قليلا عن قبل ☐ 4 انخفض بشكل كبير عن قبل ☐ 5

س67. هل أحلت على الاستيداع بناء على طلبك؟ لا ☐ 0 نعم ☐ 1

إذا كانت إجابتك بلا، الرجاء ترك السؤال التالي والانتقال ل س69

س68. ما الأسباب وراء طلبك الإحالة على الاستيداع؟ (الرجاء وضع إشارة صح إلى جانب جميع الأسباب التي تنطبق)

أسباب عائلية ☐1 فرصة عمل أخرى ☐2 الإرهاق ☐3 المرض ☐4 تغيير حياتك ☐5

أسباب أخرى، وضح.....

س69. حسب اعتقادك فإن قرار إحالتك على الاستيداع كان بسبب: (الرجاء وضع إشارة صح إلى جانب جميع الأسباب التي تنطبق)

أداؤك ☐1 ضرورة تنظيمية ☐2 احتياجاتك ☐3

أسباب أخرى، وضح.....

س70. هل تم إخبارك بوقت مبكر و بشكل غير رسمي عن قرار إحالتك على الاستيداع؟ لا ☐0 نعم ☐1

الأسئلة التالية عن مدى عدالة بعض جوانب الاستيداع، الرجاء تحديد درجة موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك على صحة العبارات التالية:

أوافق بشدة أوافق محايد لا أوافق لا أوافق بشدة

أنت تعتقد أن

س71. الفترة الزمنية بين إبلاغك رسميا بإحالتك على الاستيداع ووقت تركك العمل كانت عادلة.

☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

س72. الأسس المستخدمة لتحديد الموظفين الذين سيتم إحالتهم على الاستيداع كانت عادلة

☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

س73. الأسس المستخدمة لتحديد أي الموظفين لن يحال على الاستيداع كانت عادلة.

☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

س74. معاملة الإدارة لك بعد صدور قرار إحالتك على الاستيداع قد ساءت.

☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

س75. الإدارة فعلت ما بوسعها لتوضيح أسباب إحالتك على الاستيداع.

☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

أوافق بشدة أوافق محايد لا أوافق بشدة لا أوافق بشدة

أنت تعتقد أن

س76. جميع المحالين على الاستيداع كان لديهم الفرصة لاستئناف أو الاعتراض على قرار الإحالة على الاستيداع.

1□ 2□ 3□ 4□ 5□

س77. تم تطبيق قرارات الاستيداع بشكل متجانس على جميع الأفراد المتأثرين بالقرارات.

1□ 2□ 3□ 4□ 5□

س78. طريقة احتساب اقتطاع التقاعد خلال فترة الاستيداع كانت عادلة.

1□ 2□ 3□ 4□ 5□

س79. طول فترة الاستيداع عادلة.

1□ 2□ 3□ 4□ 5□

س80. كانت هناك بدائل أخرى أكثر إنصافاً من إحالتك على الاستيداع

1□ 2□ 3□ 4□ 5□

س81. بإيجاز كل ما نتج عن الاستيداع فإنك تعتبر أنه تم المبالغة في مكافأتك.

1□ 2□ 3□ 4□ 5□

إذا تم إحالتك على الاستيداع بناء على طلبك الرجاء الإجابة على الذي ينطبق على حالتك س82 أو س83.

أوافق بشدة أوافق محايد لا أوافق بشدة لا أوافق بشدة

س82. أنت تعتقد أن مجموع ما تتقاضاه خلال فترة الاستيداع كان عادلاً.

1□ 2□ 3□ 4□ 5□

إذا لم تكن إحالتك على الاستيداع بناء على طلبك الرجاء ترك س83.

أوافق بشدة أوافق محايد لا أوافق بشدة لا أوافق بشدة

س83. أنت تعتقد أن عدم تقاضي أي رواتب أو علاوات خلال فترة الاستيداع كان عادلاً.

1□ 2□ 3□ 4□ 5□

عند التفكير في إحالتك على الاستيداع فإتك تشعر أنك:

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	
س84. كوفنت.	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س85. مظلوم.	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س86. خذلت.	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□
س87. منحت فرصة.	1□	2□	3□	4□	5□

Appendix C: Details of answering the open-answer parts of items q68 and q69

Other reasons for requesting ESTEDA'A (open answer par. of item q68)

Theme	Number of answers
Privatisation	20
Improve income	10
Bad manager	6
I was uncomfortable	6
Run my own business/clinic	6
Family issues	5
Forced	4
Nomination for the general elections	3
To fulfil retirement requirement	2
Eligible	1
Health issues	1
My son start to participate in the family income	1
No recognition	1
Refused to promot me to be a judge	1
Self actualisation	1
To use my talent	1
Total	69

Other reasons for awarding ESTEDA'A (open answer par of item q69)

Theme	Number of answers
Privatisation	46
Bad manager	16
My request	9
Do not know	4
Family issues	3
Eligible	2
Forced	2
Health condition	2
Improve income	2
To relax	2
Was or became overqualified	2
It was planned for	1
Refused to promote me to be a judge	1
The new rules	1
Total	93

Appendix D: Results of repeating factor rotation for the items measuring organisational justice

Rotation on two factors

The Items	Factors	
	procedural justice	Distributive justice
The period of time between knowing formally about being awarded ESTEDA'A and when you had to leave your job was fair.	<u>0.770</u>	0.150
The criteria that were used to decide which employees would be awarded ESTEDA'A were fair.	<u>0.737</u>	0.355
The criteria that were used to decide which employees would not be awarded ESTEDA'A were fair.	<u>0.776</u>	0.222
The way the management treated you after the decision was made to award you ESTEDA'A became worse than before.	<u>0.561</u>	0.006
The management did their best to explain to you the reasons behind their decision to award you ESTEDA'A.	<u>0.618</u>	0.057
All the employees had the opportunity to challenge or appeal against the decision of awarding ESTEDA'A.	0.314	0.091
ESTEDA'A decisions were implemented consistently across all affected employees.	0.446	0.245
The method that was used to calculate your pension's contributions during the period of ESTEDA'A was fair.	0.197	<u>0.820</u>
The length of the period of ESTEDA'A was fair.	0.412	<u>0.723</u>
You think that the sum of payments paid to you (not having any salary or remuneration) during your period of ESTEDA'A was fair.	0.002	<u>0.753</u>
% cumulated variance explained by rotated factors	29.4	49.712

Rotation on four factors

The Items	procedural justice1	Distributive justice	procedural justice2	procedural justice3
The period of time between knowing formally about being awarded ESTEDA'A and when you had to leave your job was fair.	0.386	0.173	<u>0.661</u>	0.253
The criteria that were used to decide which employees would be awarded ESTEDA'A were fair.	<u>0.710</u>	0.313	0.362	0.001
The criteria that were used to decide which employees would not be awarded ESTEDA'A were fair.	<u>0.648</u>	0.195	0.455	0.080
The way the management treated you after the decision was made to award you ESTEDA'A became worse than before.	0.045	0.077	<u>0.839</u>	-0.070
The management did their best to explain to you the reasons behind their decision to award you ESTEDA'A.	<u>0.577</u>	0.019	0.241	0.196
All the employees had the opportunity to challenge or appeal against the decision of awarding ESTEDA'A.	0.079	0.100	0.043	<u>0.887</u>
ESTEDA'A decisions were implemented consistently across all affected employees.	<u>0.808</u>	0.142	-0.170	-0.056
The method that was used to calculate your pension's contributions during the period of ESTEDA'A was fair.	0.159	<u>0.818</u>	0.025	0.302
The length of the period of ESTEDA'A was fair.	0.231	<u>0.736</u>	0.301	0.234
You think that the sum of payments paid to you (not having any salary or remuneration) during your period of ESTEDA'A was fair.	0.097	<u>0.750</u>	0.057	-0.361
% variance explained by rotated factors	21.543	41.306	57.938	69.735

Appendix E: Statistical results for testing hypothesis 1(a)

Personality traits and distributive justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.109	0.084	0.133	0.251	1.244	1.291
		Gender	-0.045	-0.023	0.530	0.750	1.244	1.280
Model: $R= .100$; $R^2= .010$, Adjusted $R^2= .001$; Change in $R^2= .010$; $F= 1.139$; $df= 2, 237$; $p= .322$								
2	Personality traits	negative affectivity	-0.052	-0.052	0.448	0.448	1.129	1.129
		positive affectivity	-0.063	-0.063	0.345	0.345	1.054	1.054
		powerful-others locus of control	-0.130	-0.130	0.066	0.066	1.196	1.196
		chance locus of control	0.038	0.038	0.593	0.593	1.204	1.204
		internal locus of control	-0.022	-0.022	0.738	0.738	1.059	1.059
Model: $R= .184$; $R^2= .034$, Adjusted $R^2= .005$; Change in $R^2= .024$; $F= 1.174$; $df= 5, 232$; $p= .322$, Durbin-Watson= 1.961								

Personality traits and procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	-0.001	-0.047	0.992	0.502	1.222	1.266
		Gender	-0.117	-0.087	0.097	0.213	1.222	1.247
Model: $R= .117$; $R^2= .0138$, Adjusted $R^2= .00568$; Change in $R^2= .0138$; $F= 1.7$; $df= 2, 243$; $p= .185$								
2	Personality traits	negative affectivity	-0.134	-0.134	0.045	0.045	1.138	1.138
		positive affectivity	-0.046	-0.046	0.479	0.479	1.064	1.064
		powerful-others locus of control	-0.099	-0.099	0.148	0.148	1.196	1.196
		chance locus of control	0.069	0.069	0.309	0.309	1.194	1.194
		internal locus of control	0.171	0.171	0.008	0.008	1.065	1.065
Model: $R= .273$; $R^2= .0744$, Adjusted $R^2= .0472$; Change in $R^2= .0604$; $F= 3.117$; $df= 5, 238$; $p= .010$,Durbin-Watson= 1.911								

Prior job attitudes and distributive justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.122	0.127	0.077	0.068	1.262	1.289
		Gender	-0.073	-0.073	0.285	0.286	1.262	1.262
Model: $R = .110$; $R^2 = .012$, Adjusted $R^2 = .005$; Change in $R^2 = .012$; $F = 1.622$; $df = 2, 266$; $p = .199$								
2	Prior Attitudes	prior job satisfaction	-0.033	-0.033	0.589	0.589	1.027	1.027
Model: $R = .115$; $R^2 = .013$, Adjusted $R^2 = .002$; Change in $R^2 = .001$; $F = 1.914$; $df = 1, 265$; $p = .589$; Durbin-Watson = 1.952								

Prior job attitudes and procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.014	0.013	0.836	0.852	1.242	1.268
		Gender	-0.106	-0.106	0.113	0.114	1.242	1.242
Model: $R= .101$; $R^2= .010$, Adjusted $R^2= .003$; Change in $R^2= .010$; $F= 1.417$; $df= 2, 275$; $p= .244$								
2	Prior Attitudes	prior job satisfaction	0.008	0.008	0.898	0.898	1.026	1.026
Model: $R= .101$; $R^2= .010$, Adjusted $R^2= -.001$; Change in $R^2= .000$; $F= 1.433$; $df= 1, 274$; $p= .898$; Durbin-Watson= 1.892								

Need to work and distributive justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.092	0.080	0.193	0.262	1.205	1.248
		Gender	-0.064	0.033	0.366	0.709	1.205	1.970
Model: $R= .088$; $R^2= .008$; Adjusted $R^2= -.001$; Change in $R^2= .008$; $F= .934$; $df= 2, 242$; $p= .394$								
2	Need to Work	number of dependents	-0.077	-0.077	0.286	0.286	1.282	1.282
		PIFI	-0.162	-0.162	0.234	0.234	4.535	4.535
		being main breadwinner	0.168	0.168	0.212	0.212	4.460	4.460
		employment commitment	-0.146	-0.146	0.042	0.042	1.252	1.252
Model: $R= .181$; $R^2= .033$, Adjusted $R^2= .008$; Change in $R^2= .025$; $F= 2.474$; $df= 4, 238$; $p= .191$; Durbin-Watson= 1.998								

Need to work and procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	-0.007	-0.004	0.917	0.956	1.190	1.216
		Gender	-0.128	-0.134	0.062	0.121	1.190	1.857
Model: $R= .131$; $R^2= .017$; Adjusted $R^2= .009$; Change in $R^2= .017$; $F= 2.185$; $df= 2, 250$; $p= .115$								
2	Need to Work	number of dependents	0.009	0.009	0.900	0.900	1.243	1.243
		PIFI	0.037	0.037	0.782	0.782	4.495	4.495
		being main breadwinner	-0.062	-0.062	0.636	0.636	4.363	4.363
		employment commitment	0.032	0.032	0.650	0.650	1.213	1.213
Model: $R= .138$; $R^2= .019$, Adjusted $R^2= -.005$; Change in $R^2= .002$; $F= 2.294$; $df= 4, 246$; $p= .979$; Durbin-Watson= 1.986								

Reason behind awarding and distributive justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.085	0.142	0.236	0.045	1.236	1.288
		Gender	-0.096	-0.126	0.180	0.075	1.236	1.275
Model: $R= .097$; $R^2= .009$, Adjusted $R^2= .001$; Change in $R^2= .009$; $F= 1.128$; $df= 2, 239$; $p= .325$								
2	The Reason behind awarding ESTEDA' A	Your performance	0.030	0.030	0.636	0.636	1.008	1.008
		Organisational needs	0.449	0.449	0.000	0.000	2.811	2.811
		Your needs	0.318	0.318	0.003	0.003	2.849	2.849
Model: $R= .289$; $R^2= .083$, Adjusted $R^2= .064$; Change in $R^2= .074$; $F= 7.476$; $df= 3, 236$; $p= .000$, Durbin-Watson= 2.08								

Reason behind awarding and procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.009	0.052	0.896	0.410	1.249	1.268
		Gender	-0.117	-0.160	0.080	0.013	1.249	1.289
Model: $R= .092$; $R^2= .008$, Adjusted $R^2= .000$; Change in $R^2= .008$; $F= 1.061$; $df= 2, 250$; $p= .348$								
2	The Reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A	Your performance	0.073	0.073	0.198	0.198	1.014	1.014
		Organisational needs	0.444	0.444	0.000	0.000	1.759	1.759
		your needs	0.337	0.337	0.000	0.000	1.736	1.736
Model: $R= .467$; $R^2= .209$, Adjusted $R^2= .193$; Change in $R^2= .201$; $F= 21.939$; $df= 3, 247$; $p= .000$.Durbin-Watson= 2.008								

Appendix F: Statistical results for testing hypothesis 1(c)

New job level and type and distributive justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.092	0.106	0.245	0.176	1.145	1.205
		Gender	-0.095	-0.087	0.228	0.256	1.145	1.164
Model: $R= .106$; $R^2= .011$, Adjusted $R^2= .000$; Change in $R^2= .011$; $F= 1.041$; $df= 2, 184$; $p= .355$								
2	New job Level	new job circumstances	-0.097	-0.097	0.201	0.201	1.120	1.120
		new job rewards	0.121	0.121	0.160	0.160	1.460	1.460
	New job Type	Fulltime/part-time	-0.003	-0.003	0.968	0.968	1.401	1.401
		Temporary/permanent	-0.210	-0.210	0.008	0.008	1.224	1.224
Model: $R= .297$; $R^2= .088$, Adjusted $R^2= .058$; Change in $R^2= .077$; $F= 4.847$; $df= 4, 180$; $p= .005$,Durbin-Watson= 2.013								

New job level and type and procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	-0.020	-0.002	0.791	0.975	1.128	1.193
		Gender	-0.086	-0.095	0.262	0.208	1.128	1.147
Model: $R= .095$; $R^2= .009$, Adjusted $R^2= -.001$; Change in $R^2= .009$; $F= .867$; $df= 2, 192$; $p= .422$								
2	New job Level	new job circumstances	-0.079	-0.079	0.293	0.293	1.125	1.125
		new job rewards	0.149	0.149	0.079	0.079	1.441	1.441
	New job Type	Fulltime/part-time	-0.067	-0.067	0.423	0.423	1.400	1.400
		Temporary/permanent	-0.110	-0.110	0.156	0.156	1.203	1.203
Model: $R= .267$; $R^2= .071$, Adjusted $R^2= .042$; Change in $R^2= .062$; $F= 4.022$; $df= 4, 188$; $p= .015$, Durbin-Watson= 1.832								

Appendix G: Statistical results for testing hypothesis 1(d)

Reason behind requesting ESTEDA'A and distributive justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.135	0.111	0.141	0.243	1.275	1.383
		Gender	-0.076	-0.067	0.403	0.528	1.275	1.743
Model: $R= .120$; $R^2= .014$, Adjusted $R^2= .001$; Change in $R^2= .014$; $F= 1.112$; $df= 2, 152$; $p= .332$								
2	The reason behind requesting ESTEDA'A	Family Issues	-0.021	-0.021	0.832	0.832	1.458	1.458
		Another job	0.047	0.047	0.609	0.609	1.270	1.270
		Being tired	0.172	0.172	0.043	0.043	1.103	1.103
		Illness	-0.041	-0.041	0.626	0.626	1.083	1.083
		Changing my life	-0.075	-0.075	0.360	0.360	1.033	1.033
Model: $R= .218$; $R^2= .047$, Adjusted $R^2= .002$; Change in $R^2= .033$; $F= 2.131$; $df= 5, 147$; $p= .408$; Durbin-Watson= 1.812								

procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.019	0.006	0.830	0.951	1.251	1.354
		Gender	-0.128	-0.212	0.158	0.041	1.251	1.694
Model: $R= .121$; $R^2= .015$, Adjusted $R^2= .002$; Change in $R^2= .015$; $F= 1.117$; $df= 2, 152$; $p= .330$								
2	The reason behind requesting ESTEDA'A	Family Issues	-0.143	-0.143	0.132	0.132	1.413	1.413
		Another job	0.136	0.136	0.125	0.125	1.232	1.232
		Being tired	0.170	0.170	0.043	0.043	1.106	1.106
		Illness	-0.031	-0.031	0.705	0.705	1.079	1.079
		Changing my life	-0.100	-0.100	0.215	0.215	1.034	1.034
Model: $R= .288$; $R^2= .083$, Adjusted $R^2= .039$; Change in $R^2= .069$; $F= 3.299$; $df= 5, 146$; $p= .059$; Durbin-Watson= 1.804								

Appendix H: Statistical results for testing hypothesis 1(e)

The interaction of unemployment rates and working after ESTEDA'A and distributive justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.118	0.114	0.095	0.108	1.301	1.331
		Gender	-0.078	-0.128	0.269	0.385	1.301	5.792
Model: $R= .105$; $R^2= .011$, Adjusted $R^2= .004$; Change in $R^2= .011$; $F= 1.464$; $df= 2, 261$; $p= .233$								
2	unemployment rates		0.003	-0.213	0.980	0.205	5.021	7.522
	working after ESTEDA'A		0.107	0.039	0.137	0.611	1.355	1.600
Model: $R= .140$; $R^2= .020$; Adjusted $R^2= .004$; Change in $R^2= .009$; $F= 2.587$; $df= 2, 259$; $p= .327$								
3	Interaction	unemployment rates and working after ESTEDA'A	0.239	0.239	0.026	0.026	3.057	3.057
Model: $R= .196$; $R^2= .038$, Adjusted $R^2= .020$; Change in $R^2= .019$; $F= 7.597$; $df= 1, 258$; $p= .026$; Durbin-Watson= 1.946								

The interaction of unemployment rates and working after ESTEDA'A and procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	-0.012	0.011	0.865	0.870	1.276	1.293
		Gender	-0.107	-0.142	0.118	0.352	1.276	6.399
Model: $R= .113$; $R^2= .013$, Adjusted $R^2= .005$; Change in $R^2= .013$; $F= 1.743$; $df= 2, 268$; $p= .177$								
2	unemployment rates		0.018	0.247	0.901	0.179	5.534	9.304
	working after ESTEDA'A		0.150	0.207	0.032	0.006	1.342	1.570
Model: $R= .173$; $R^2= .030$; Adjusted $R^2= .015$; Change in $R^2= .017$; $F= 4.103$; $df= 2, 266$; $p= .096$								
3	Interaction	unemployment rates and working after ESTEDA'A	-0.218	-0.218	0.051	0.051	3.417	3.417
Model: $R= .210$; $R^2= .044$, Adjusted $R^2= .026$; Change in $R^2= .014$; $F= 7.959$; $df= 1, 265$; $p= .051$; Durbin-Watson= 1.776								

Appendix I: Statistical results for testing hypothesis 1(f)

informal advance notice and distributive justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.123	-0.237	0.140	0.056	1.080	1.140
		Gender	-0.123	0.000	0.137	0.280	1.080	1.159
Model: $R= .148$; $R^2= .022$; Adjusted $R^2= .009$; Change in $R^2= .022$; $F= 1.744$; $df= 2, 155$; $p= .178$								
2	New job level	new job circumstances	-0.094	-0.090	0.248	0.272	1.195	1.200
		new job rewards	0.010	0.006	0.913	0.948	1.518	1.522
	New job type	Fulltime/part-time	0.033	0.033	0.717	0.714	1.490	1.490
		Temporary/permanent	-0.242	-0.237	0.006	0.007	1.333	1.338
	Had a job before leaving		0.121	0.123	0.134	0.129	1.160	1.161
	Comparing family incomes before and after ESTEDA'A		-0.237	-0.228	0.004	0.006	1.179	1.199
Model: $R= .414$; $R^2= .171$; Adjusted $R^2= .127$; Change in $R^2= .149$; $F= 6.224$; $df= 6, 149$; $p= .000$								
3	informal advance notice		0.067	0.067	0.381	0.381	1.054	1.054
Model: $R= .419$; $R^2= .176$, Adjusted $R^2= .126$; Change in $R^2= .004$; $F= 6.996$; $df= 1, 148$; $p= .381$; Durbin-Watson= 2.054								

informal advance notice and procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.002	-0.257	0.977	0.455	1.079	1.154
		Gender	-0.115	0.000	0.161	0.357	1.079	1.152
Model: $R= .013$; $R^2= .001$; Adjusted $R^2= .001$; Change in $R^2= .013$; $F= 1.057$; $df= 2, 160$; $p= .350$								
2	New job level	new job circumstances	-0.111	-0.096	0.170	0.206	1.200	1.202
		new job rewards	0.028	0.007	0.758	0.931	1.500	1.504
	New job type	Fulltime/part-time	-0.026	-0.027	0.771	0.746	1.484	1.484
		Temporary/permanent	-0.137	-0.114	0.105	0.152	1.304	1.309
	Had a job before leaving		0.168	0.176	0.035	0.019	1.150	1.151
	Comparing family incomes before and after ESTEDA'A		-0.257	-0.210	0.002	0.006	1.185	1.207
Model: $R= .408$; $R^2= .167$; Adjusted $R^2= .123$; Change in $R^2= .154$; $F= 5.786$; $df= 6, 154$; $p= .000$								
3	informal advance notice		0.326	0.326	0.000	0.000	1.058	1.058
Model: $R= .517$; $R^2= .267$, Adjusted $R^2= .224$; Change in $R^2= .100$; $F= 26.969$; $df= 1, 153$; $p= .000$; Durbin-Watson= 2.076								

Appendix J: Statistical results for testing hypothesis 1(g)

The interaction of prior job satisfaction and informal advance notice and distributive justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.162	0.174	0.025	0.019	1.208	1.273
		Gender	-0.115	-0.110	0.110	0.128	1.208	1.217
Model: $R = .155$; $R^2 = .024$, Adjusted $R^2 = .016$; Change in $R^2 = .024$; $F = 2.827$; $df = 2, 229$; $p = .061$								
2	prior job satisfaction		-0.053	-0.055	0.426	0.515	1.040	1.639
	informal advance notice		0.064	0.064	0.331	0.332	1.007	1.007
Model: $R = .176$; $R^2 = .031$; Adjusted $R^2 = .014$; Change in $R^2 = .007$; $F = 3.614$; $df = 2, 227$; $p = .457$								
3	Interaction	prior job satisfaction and informal advance notice	0.003	0.003	0.974	0.974	1.659	1.659
Model: $R = .176$; $R^2 = .031$, Adjusted $R^2 = .009$; Change in $R^2 = .000$; $F = 3.615$; $df = 1, 226$; $p = .974$; Durbin-Watson= 1.922								

The interaction of prior job satisfaction and informal advance notice and procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.058	0.052	0.411	0.457	1.186	1.244
		Gender	-0.123	-0.102	0.083	0.139	1.186	1.193
Model: $R= .114$; $R^2= .013$, Adjusted $R^2= .004$; Change in $R^2= .013$; $F= 1.524$; $df= 2, 233$; $p= .220$								
2	prior job satisfaction		0.009	-0.085	0.886	0.287	1.037	1.615
	informal advance notice		0.248	0.247	0.000	0.000	1.007	1.007
Model: $R= .272$; $R^2= .074$; Adjusted $R^2= .058$; Change in $R^2= .061$; $F= 9.142$; $df= 2, 231$; $p= .001$								
3	Interaction	prior job satisfaction and informal advance notice	0.159	0.159	0.049	0.049	1.625	1.625
Model: $R= .299$; $R^2= .089$, Adjusted $R^2= .070$; Change in $R^2= .015$; $F= 13.057$; $df= 1, 230$; $p= .049$; Durbin-Watson= 1.911								

Appendix K: Statistical results for testing hypothesis 2(a)

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and negative affectivity and distributive justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.108	0.094	0.134	0.196	1.241	1.267
		Gender	-0.040	-0.055	0.574	0.453	1.241	1.288
Model: $R= .097$; $R^2= .009$, Adjusted $R^2= .001$; Change in $R^2= .009$; $F= 1.138$; $df= 2, 240$; $p= .322$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		-0.083	-0.082	0.211	0.214	1.054	1.057
	negative affectivity		-0.070	-0.076	0.284	0.473	1.021	2.695
Model: $R= .144$; $R^2= .021$; Adjusted $R^2= .004$; Change in $R^2= .011$; $F=2.530$; $df= 2, 238$; $p= .251$								
3	Interaction	negative affectivity and ESTEDA'A type	0.008	0.008	0.940	0.940	2.664	2.664
Model: $R= .144$; $R^2= .021$, Adjusted $R^2= .000$; Change in $R^2= .000$; $F= 2.535$; $df= 1, 237$; $p= .940$; Durbin-Watson= 1.930								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and negative affectivity and procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.007	-0.002	0.925	0.979	1.217	1.235
		Gender	-0.120	-0.091	0.086	0.195	1.217	1.260
Model: $R= .118$; $R^2= .014$, Adjusted $R^2= .006$; Change in $R^2= .014$; $F= 1.732$; $df= 2, 247$; $p= .179$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		0.122	0.123	0.057	0.057	1.051	1.051
	negative affectivity		-0.127	-0.039	0.045	0.683	1.013	2.378
Model: $R= .211$; $R^2= .044$; Adjusted $R^2= .029$; Change in $R^2= .031$; $F=5.663$; $df= 2, 245$; $p= .021$								
3	Interaction	negative affectivity and ESTEDA'A type	-0.115	-0.115	0.233	0.233	2.361	2.361
Model: $R= .224$; $R^2= .031$, Adjusted $R^2= .006$; Change in $R^2= .006$; $F= 7.092$; $df= 1, 244$; $p= .233$; Durbin-Watson= 1.957								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and positive affectivity and distributive justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.110	0.106	0.126	0.138	1.237	1.239
		Gender	-0.046	-0.054	0.522	0.462	1.237	1.292
Model: $R= .099$; $R^2= .010$, Adjusted $R^2= .001$; Change in $R^2= .010$; $F= 1.181$; $df= 2, 240$; $p= .309$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		-0.073	-0.071	0.267	0.285	1.053	1.054
	positive affectivity		-0.070	0.037	0.276	0.716	1.004	2.500
Model: $R= .140$; $R^2= .020$; Adjusted $R^2= .003$; Change in $R^2= .010$; $F=2.392$; $df= 2, 238$; $p= .299$								
3	Interaction	positive affectivity and ESTEDA'A type	-0.138	-0.138	0.173	0.173	2.500	2.500
Model: $R= .165$; $R^2= .027$, Adjusted $R^2= .007$; Change in $R^2= .008$; $F= 4.260$; $df= 1, 237$; $p= .173$; Durbin-Watson= 1.909								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and positive affectivity and procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.013	0.015	0.851	0.826	1.215	1.221
		Gender	-0.127	-0.098	0.069	0.165	1.215	1.261
Model: $R= .122$; $R^2= .015$, Adjusted $R^2= .007$; Change in $R^2= .015$; $F= 1.871$; $df= 2, 247$; $p= .156$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		0.138	0.137	0.034	0.034	1.051	1.051
	positive affectivity		-0.016	-0.052	0.795	0.592	1.005	2.359
Model: $R= .182$; $R^2= .033$; Adjusted $R^2= .017$; Change in $R^2= .018$; $F=4.172$; $df= 2, 245$; $p= .102$								
3	Interaction	positive affectivity and ESTEDA'A type	0.047	0.047	0.629	0.629	2.354	2.354
Model: $R= .183$; $R^2= .034$, Adjusted $R^2= .014$; Change in $R^2= .001$; $F= 4.406$; $df= 1, 244$; $p= .629$; Durbin-Watson= 1.976								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and chance locus of control and distributive justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.113	0.111	0.099	0.107	1.270	1.272
		Gender	-0.077	-0.094	0.260	0.174	1.270	1.301
Model: $R= .104$; $R^2= .011$, Adjusted $R^2= .003$; Change in $R^2= .011$; $F= 1.459$; $df= 2, 268$; $p= .234$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		-0.106	-0.106	0.086	0.086	1.029	1.029
	chance locus of control		-0.005	-0.035	0.936	0.734	1.007	2.938
Model: $R= .147$; $R^2= .022$; Adjusted $R^2= .007$; Change in $R^2= .011$; $F=2.948$; $df= 2, 266$; $p= .227$								
3	Interaction	chance locus of control and ESTEDA'A type	0.038	0.038	0.717	0.717	2.949	2.949
Model: $R= .149$; $R^2= .022$, Adjusted $R^2= .004$; Change in $R^2= .000$; $F= 3.080$; $df= 1, 265$; $p= .717$; Durbin-Watson= 1.964								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and chance locus of control and procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.009	0.010	0.896	0.880	1.249	1.253
		Gender	-0.117	-0.101	0.080	0.133	1.249	1.276
Model: $R= .113$; $R^2= .013$, Adjusted $R^2= .006$; Change in $R^2= .013$; $F= 1.808$; $df= 2, 278$; $p= .166$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		0.121	0.121	0.045	0.046	1.026	1.027
	chance locus of control		0.032	0.019	0.591	0.842	1.008	2.701
Model: $R= .168$; $R^2= .028$; Adjusted $R^2= .014$; Change in $R^2= .015$; $F=3.992$; $df= 2, 276$; $p= .115$								
3	Interaction	chance locus of control and ESTEDA'A type	0.016	0.016	0.871	0.871	2.702	2.702
Model: $R= .168$; $R^2= .028$, Adjusted $R^2= .011$; Change in $R^2= .000$; $F= 4.019$; $df= 1, 275$; $p= .817$; Durbin-Watson= 1.934								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and internal locus of control and distributive justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.120	0.116	0.080	0.092	1.271	1.278
		Gender	-0.084	-0.097	0.220	0.163	1.271	1.307
Model: $R= .110$; $R^2= .012$, Adjusted $R^2= .005$; Change in $R^2= .012$; $F= 1.651$; $df= 2, 268$; $p= .194$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		-0.100	-0.098	0.107	0.113	1.035	1.037
	internal locus of control		-0.030	-0.074	0.623	0.419	1.011	2.278
Model: $R= .153$; $R^2= .023$; Adjusted $R^2= .009$; Change in $R^2= .011$; $F=3.162$; $df= 2, 266$; $p= .223$								
3	Interaction	internal locus of control and ESTEDA'A type	0.059	0.059	0.519	0.519	2.279	2.279
Model: $R= .157$; $R^2= .025$, Adjusted $R^2= .006$; Change in $R^2= .002$; $F= 3.579$; $df= 1, 265$; $p= .518$; Durbin-Watson= 1.972								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and internal locus of control and procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.010	0.001	0.880	0.988	1.251	1.258
		Gender	-0.118	-0.089	0.078	0.179	1.251	1.277
Model: $R= .114$; $R^2= .013$, Adjusted $R^2= .006$; Change in $R^2= .013$; $F= 1.825$; $df= 2, 277$; $p= .163$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		0.112	0.111	0.064	0.063	1.037	1.037
	internal locus of control		0.108	-0.020	0.070	0.812	1.014	1.992
Model: $R= .198$; $R^2= .039$; Adjusted $R^2= .025$; Change in $R^2= .026$; $F=5.596$; $df= 2, 275$; $p= .024$								
3	Interaction	internal locus of control and ESTEDA'A type	0.182	0.182	0.028	0.028	1.988	1.988
Model: $R= .237$; $R^2= .056$, Adjusted $R^2= .039$; Change in $R^2= .017$; $F= 4.857$; $df= 1, 274$; $p= .028$; Durbin-Watson= 1.941								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and powerful-others locus of control and distributive justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.115	0.087	0.095	0.197	1.270	1.286
		Gender	-0.079	-0.076	0.249	0.262	1.270	1.308
Model: $R= .105$; $R^2= .011$, Adjusted $R^2= .004$; Change in $R^2= .011$; $F= 1.497$; $df= 2, 268$; $p= .226$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		-0.150	-0.156	0.015	0.012	1.071	1.080
	powerful-others locus of control		-0.207	-0.282	0.001	0.002	1.061	2.424
Model: $R= .251$; $R^2= .063$; Adjusted $R^2= .049$; Change in $R^2= .052$; $F=8.859$; $df= 2, 266$; $p= .001$								
3	Interaction	powerful-others locus of control and ESTEDA'A type	0.098	0.098	0.281	0.281	2.334	2.334
Model: $R= .259$; $R^2= .067$, Adjusted $R^2= .049$; Change in $R^2= .004$; $F= 10.028$; $df= 1, 265$; $p= .281$; Durbin-Watson= 1.985								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and powerful-others locus of control and procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.005	0.000	0.937	0.999	1.252	1.260
		Gender	-0.114	-0.091	0.090	0.179	1.252	1.283
Model: $R= .112$; $R^2= .012$, Adjusted $R^2= .005$; Change in $R^2= .012$; $F= 1.738$; $df= 2, 276$; $p= .178$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		0.095	0.089	0.121	0.150	1.066	1.078
	powerful-others locus of control		-0.111	-0.178	0.068	0.049	1.052	2.316
Model: $R= .194$; $R^2= .038$; Adjusted $R^2= .024$; Change in $R^2= .025$; $F=5.323$; $df= 2, 274$; $p= .029$								
3	Interaction	powerful-others locus of control and ESTEDA'A type	0.089	0.089	0.318	0.318	2.238	2.238
Model: $R= .203$; $R^2= .041$, Adjusted $R^2= .024$; Change in $R^2= .004$; $F= 6.324$; $df= 1, 273$; $p= .318$; Durbin-Watson= 1.920								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and prior job satisfaction and distributive justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.122	0.129	0.077	0.062	1.262	1.300
		Gender	-0.073	-0.092	0.285	0.184	1.262	1.289
Model: $R= .110$; $R^2= .012$, Adjusted $R^2= .005$; Change in $R^2= .012$; $F= 1.622$; $df= 2, 266$; $p= .199$								
2	prior job satisfaction		-0.059	-0.119	0.352	0.264	1.072	3.081
	ESTEDA'A type		-0.123	-0.127	0.051	0.045	1.071	1.079
Model: $R= .165$; $R^2= .027$; Adjusted $R^2= .013$; Change in $R^2= .015$; $F= 3.687$; $df= 2, 264$; $p= .129$								
3	Interaction	prior job satisfaction and ESTEDA'A type	0.074	0.074	0.481	0.481	2.936	2.936
Model: $R= .171$; $R^2= .029$, Adjusted $R^2= .011$; Change in $R^2= .002$; $F= 4.186$; $df= 1, 263$; $p= .481$; Durbin-Watson= 1.965								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and prior job satisfaction and procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.014	0.012	0.836	0.862	1.242	1.273
		Gender	-0.106	-0.089	0.113	0.188	1.242	1.265
Model: $R= .101$; $R^2= .010$, Adjusted $R^2= .003$; Change in $R^2= .101$; $F= 1.417$; $df= 2, 275$; $p= .244$								
2	prior job satisfaction		0.032	-0.161	0.609	0.118	1.065	2.989
	ESTEDA'A type		0.124	0.111	0.046	0.071	1.064	1.071
Model: $R= .157$; $R^2= .025$; Adjusted $R^2= .010$; Change in $R^2= .014$; $F= 3.433$; $df= 2, 273$; $p= .135$								
3	Interaction	prior job satisfaction and ESTEDA'A type	0.235	0.235	0.020	0.020	2.863	2.863
Model: $R= .209$; $R^2= .044$, Adjusted $R^2= .026$; Change in $R^2= .019$; $F= 8.905$; $df= 1, 272$; $p= .020$; Durbin-Watson= 1.900								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and employment commitment and distributive justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.112	0.093	0.110	0.180	1.278	1.290
		Gender	-0.061	-0.018	0.380	0.812	1.278	1.575
Model: $R= .100$; $R^2= .010$, Adjusted $R^2= .002$; Change in $R^2= .010$; $F= 1.300$; $df= 2, 260$; $p= .274$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		-0.105	-0.108	0.092	0.083	1.033	1.033
	employment commitment		-0.153	-0.303	0.024	0.007	1.217	3.332
Model: $R= .202$; $R^2= .041$; Adjusted $R^2= .026$; Change in $R^2= .031$; $F= 5.443$; $df= 2, 258$; $p= .017$								
3	Interaction	employment commitment and ESTEDA'A type	0.185	0.185	0.091	0.091	3.238	3.238
Model: $R= .227$; $R^2= .051$, Adjusted $R^2= .033$; Change in $R^2= .011$; $F= 8.321$; $df= 1, 257$; $p= .091$; Dürbin-Watson= 1.875								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and employment commitment and procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	-0.004	-0.004	0.951	0.949	1.253	1.259
		Gender	-0.110	-0.086	0.109	0.250	1.253	1.511
Model: $R= .111$; $R^2= .012$, Adjusted $R^2= .005$; Change in $R^2= .012$; $F= 1.678$; $df= 2, 267$; $p= .189$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		0.095	0.093	0.123	0.132	1.029	1.034
	employment commitment		-0.024	-0.062	0.713	0.562	1.195	3.076
Model: $R= .147$; $R^2= .022$; Adjusted $R^2= .007$; Change in $R^2= .009$; $F= 2.933$; $df= 2, 265$; $p= .287$								
3	Interaction	employment commitment and ESTEDA'A type	0.047	0.047	0.653	0.653	2.983	2.983
Model: $R= .150$; $R^2= .004$, Adjusted $R^2= .001$; Change in $R^2= .001$; $F= 3.135$; $df= 1, 264$; $p= .653$; Durbin-Watson= 1.919								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and PIFI and distributive justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.101	0.106	0.146	0.132	1.277	1.316
		Gender	-0.066	-0.062	0.343	0.437	1.277	1.671
Model: $R= .091$; $R^2= .008$, Adjusted $R^2= .001$; Change in $R^2= .008$; $F= 1.111$; $df= 2, 264$; $p= .331$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		-0.121	-0.125	0.053	0.048	1.033	1.049
	PIFI		-0.051	-0.099	0.490	0.423	1.477	4.077
Model: $R= .154$; $R^2= .024$; Adjusted $R^2= .006$; Change in $R^2= .001$; $F= 3.153$; $df= 2, 262$; $p= .132$								
3	Interaction	ESTEDA'A type and PIFI	0.057	0.057	0.628	0.628	3.691	3.691
Model: $R= .156$; $R^2= .024$, Adjusted $R^2= .006$; Change in $R^2= .001$; $F= 3.388$; $df= 1, 261$; $p= .628$; Durbin-Watson= 1.983								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and PIFI and procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.007	0.028	0.914	0.675	1.255	1.285
		Gender	-0.113	-0.084	0.095	0.266	1.255	1.600
Model: $R= .110$; $R^2= .012$, Adjusted $R^2= .005$; Change in $R^2= .012$; $F= 1.666$; $df= 2, 273$; $p= .191$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		0.116	0.106	0.057	0.082	1.033	1.044
	PIFI		-0.053	-0.195	0.454	0.099	1.407	3.869
Model: $R= .168$; $R^2= .028$; Adjusted $R^2= .014$; Change in $R^2= .016$; $F= 3.903$; $df= 2, 271$; $p= .109$								
3	Interaction	ESTEDA'A type and PIFI	0.170	0.170	0.133	0.133	3.544	3.544
Model: $R= .190$; $R^2= .036$, Adjusted $R^2= .018$; Change in $R^2= .008$; $F= 6.175$; $df= 1, 270$; $p= .133$; Durbin-Watson= 1.956								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and number of dependents and distributive justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.107	0.103	0.118	0.133	1.194	1.209
		Gender	-0.090	-0.078	0.190	0.312	1.194	1.544
Model: $R= .108$; $R^2= .012$, Adjusted $R^2= .012$; Change in $R^2= .012$; $F= 1.510$; $df= 2, 254$; $p= .223$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		-0.112	-0.112	0.076	0.078	1.031	1.038
	number of dependents		-0.064	-0.062	0.360	0.535	1.243	2.535
Model: $R= .164$; $R^2= .027$; Adjusted $R^2= .011$; Change in $R^2= .015$; $F= 3.467$; $df= 2, 252$; $p= .143$								
3	Interaction	ESTEDA'A type and number of dependents	-0.003	-0.003	0.977	0.977	2.597	2.597
Model: $R= .164$; $R^2= .027$, Adjusted $R^2= .007$; Change in $R^2= .000$; $F= 3.468$; $df= 1, 251$; $p= .977$; Durbin-Watson= 2.077								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and number of dependents and procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.010	0.029	0.883	0.657	1.182	1.198
		Gender	-0.138	-0.163	0.038	0.028	1.182	1.486
Model: $R= .135$; $R^2= .018$, Adjusted $R^2= .011$; Change in $R^2= .018$; $F= 2.439$; $df= 2, 264$; $p= .089$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		0.110	0.103	0.075	0.094	1.029	1.033
	number of dependents		0.011	-0.129	0.871	0.165	1.198	2.365
Model: $R= .173$; $R^2= .030$; Adjusted $R^2= .015$; Change in $R^2= .012$; $F= 4.042$; $df= 2, 262$; $p= .203$								
3	Interaction	ESTEDA'A type and number of dependents	0.202	0.202	0.033	0.033	2.435	2.435
Model: $R= .216$; $R^2= .047$, Adjusted $R^2= .029$; Change in $R^2= .017$; $F= 8.648$; $df= 1, 261$; $p= .033$; Durbin-Watson= 1.951								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and new job circumstances and distributive justice								
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Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.125	0.126	0.088	0.081	1.145	1.146
		Gender	-0.131	-0.122	0.075	0.094	1.145	1.159
Model: $R= .145$; $R^2= .021$, Adjusted $R^2= .012$; Change in $R^2= .021$; $F= 2.271$; $df= 2, 211$; $p= .106$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		-0.172	-0.168	0.015	0.017	1.077	1.079
	new job circumstances		-0.028	-0.133	0.693	0.222	1.078	2.603
Model: $R= .232$; $R^2= .054$; Adjusted $R^2= .036$; Change in $R^2= .033$; $F= 5.891$; $df= 2, 209$; $p= .028$								
3	Interaction	new job circumstances and ESTEDA'A type	0.135	0.135	0.206	0.206	2.506	2.506
Model: $R= .247$; $R^2= .061$, Adjusted $R^2= .039$; Change in $R^2= .007$; $F= 7.497$; $df= 1, 208$; $p= .026$; Durbin-Watson= 2.061								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and new job circumstances and procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.044	0.041	0.533	0.564	1.132	1.135
		Gender	-0.090	-0.090	0.207	0.215	1.132	1.150
Model: $R= .086$; $R^2= .007$, Adjusted $R^2= -.002$; Change in $R^2= .007$; $F= .820$; $df= 2, 221$; $p= .442$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		0.038	0.037	0.590	0.599	1.074	1.079
	new job circumstances		-0.072	-0.059	0.302	0.588	1.076	2.573
Model: $R= .112$; $R^2= .013$; Adjusted $R^2= -.005$; Change in $R^2= .005$; $F=1.394$; $df= 2, 219$; $p= .564$								
3	Interaction	new job circumstances and ESTEDA'A type	-0.017	-0.017	0.871	0.871	2.473	2.473
Model: $R= .113$; $R^2= .013$, Adjusted $R^2= -.010$; Change in $R^2= .000$; $F= 1.421$; $df= 1, 218$; $p= .871$; Durbin-Watson= 2.011								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and new job rewards and distributive

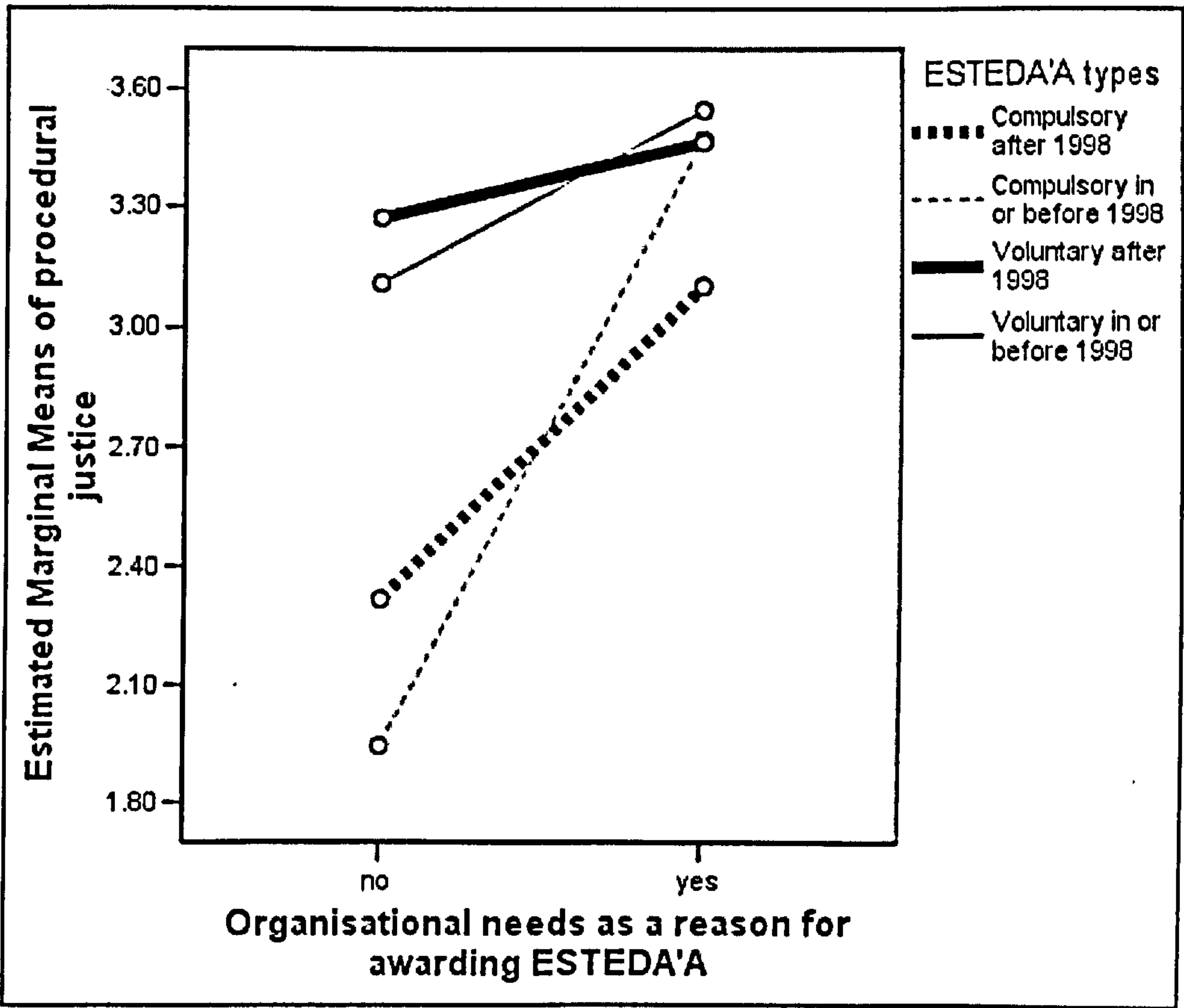
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Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.115	0.133	0.117	0.067	1.145	1.167
		Gender	-0.129	-0.138	0.077	0.056	1.145	1.154
Model: $R= .139$; $R^2= .019$, Adjusted $R^2= .010$; Change in $R^2= .019$; $F=2.085$; $df= 2, 211$; $p= .127$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		-0.159	-0.160	0.019	0.018	1.015	1.016
	new job rewards		0.139	0.095	0.042	0.376	1.033	2.594
Model: $R= .262$; $R^2= .069$; Adjusted $R^2= .051$; Change in $R^2= .049$; $F= 5.543$; $df= 2, 209$; $p= .005$								
3	Interaction	new job rewards and ESTEDA'A type	0.055	0.055	0.603	0.603	2.543	2.543
Model: $R= .265$; $R^2= .07$, Adjusted $R^2= .048$; Change in $R^2= .001$; $F= 7.898$; $df= 1, 208$; $p= .603$; Durbin-Watson= 2.085								

The interaction of ESTEDA'A type and new job rewards and procedural justice								
Model	Entered variables		Beta		Coefficient Significance		VIF	
			Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	Control Variables	Age	0.023	0.060	0.748	0.395	1.132	1.161
		Gender	-0.085	-0.108	0.237	0.125	1.132	1.143
Model: $R= .080$; $R^2= .006$, Adjusted $R^2= -.003$; Change in $R^2= .006$; $F= .706$; $df= 2, 221$; $p= .495$								
2	ESTEDA'A type		0.054	0.059	0.422	0.377	1.016	1.018
	new job rewards		0.179	0.361	0.008	0.001	1.038	2.467
Model: $R= .196$; $R^2= .038$; Adjusted $R^2= .021$; Change in $R^2= .032$; $F= 4.354$; $df= 2, 219$; $p= .028$								
3	Interaction	new job rewards and ESTEDA'A type	-0.235	-0.235	0.022	0.022	2.405	2.405
Model: $R= .248$; $R^2= .061$, Adjusted $R^2= .040$; Change in $R^2= .023$; $F= 9.708$; $df= 1, 218$; $p= .022$; Durbin-Watson= 1.974								

Appendix L: Testing hypothesis 2(b) regarding organisational needs as a reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A and ESTEDA'A type measured as four types.

Regarding procedural justice, the result of Levene's test ($F = .853$; $df = 7, 244$; $p = .545$) indicates the equality of error variances across groups, hence two-way ANOVA test is appropriate to use. The result of two-way ANOVA shows that the interaction between 'ESTEDA'A type' and 'organisational needs' as a reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A was significant ($F = 4.975$; $df = 2, 244$; $p = .002$).

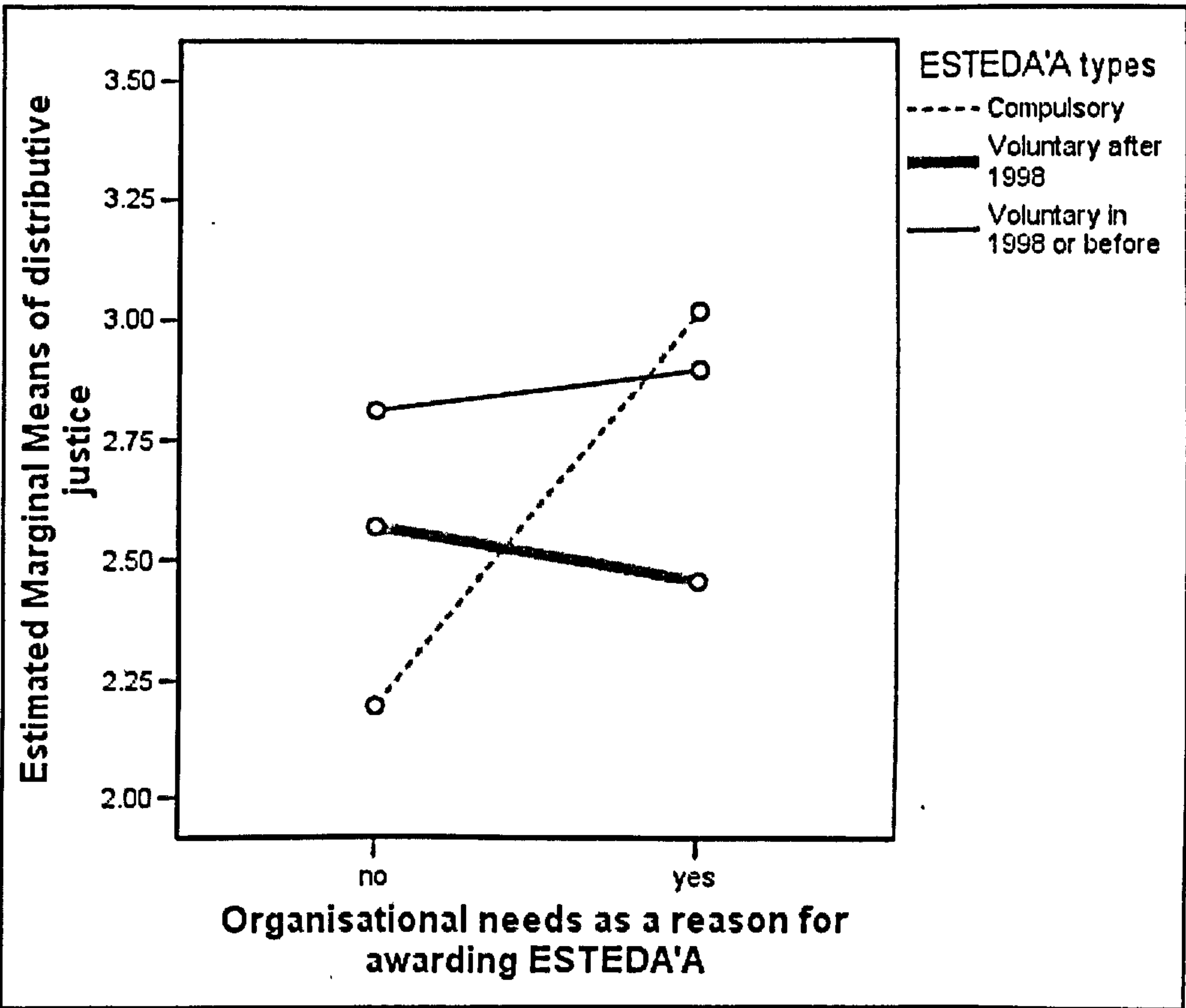
The effect of the interaction between 'organisational needs' and ESTEDA'A type on procedural justice



Appendix M: Testing hypothesis 2(b) regarding organisational needs as a reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A and ESTEDA'A type measured as three types.

Regarding distributive justice, the result of Levene's test ($F= 1.107$; $df= 5, 235$; $p= .357$) indicates the equality of error variances across groups, hence two-way ANOVA test is appropriate to use. The result of two-way ANOVA shows that the interaction between 'ESTEDA'A type' and 'organisational needs' as a reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A was significant ($F= 4.779$; $df=2, 235$; $p= .009$).

The effect of the interaction between 'organisational needs' and ESTEDA'A type on distributive justice



Regarding procedural justice, the result of Levene's test ($F = .833$; $df = 5, 246$; $p = .527$) indicates the equality of error variances across groups, hence two-way ANOVA test is appropriate to use. The result of two-way ANOVA shows that the interaction between 'ESTEDA'A type' and 'organisational needs' as a reason behind awarding ESTEDA'A was significant ($F = 7.352$; $df = 2, 246$; $p = .001$).

The effect of the interaction between 'organisational needs' and ESTEDA'A type on procedural justice

